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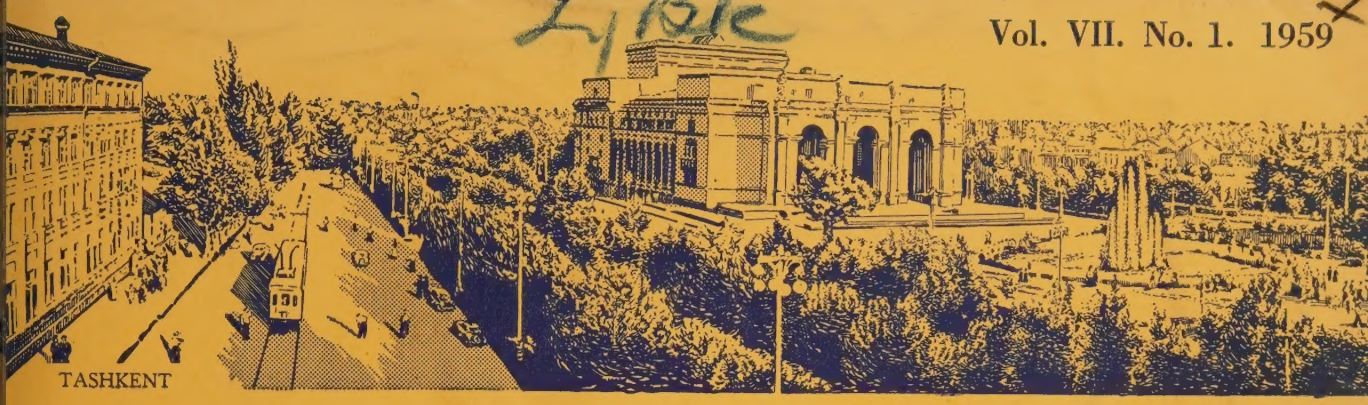

TASHKENT

CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW

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A quarterly review of cultural developments in the six Muslim republics of the Soviet Union.

Issued by the Central Asian Research Centre in association with St. Antony's College (Oxford) Soviet Affairs Study Group.

BUKHARA

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CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW aims at presenting a coherent and objective picture of cultural developments in the six Muslim Soviet Socialist Republics of Azerbaydzhan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kirgizia and Kazakhstan. The subjects treated include history, geography, demography, the arts, education, irrigation and communications.

In addition, the *REVIEW* analyses past and current Soviet publications on the countries bordering on or adjacent to these republics, namely, Persia, Afghanistan, the Indian sub-continent, Tibet and Sinkiang.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviations used in the Review when referring to the Soviet Academies of Sciences, and to newspapers and periodicals etc. employed as sources, are as follows :-

AN/SSSR	Akademiya Nauk (Academy of Sciences) of USSR
AN/Kaz. SSR	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Kazakh SSR
AN/Kirg. SSR	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Kirgiz SSR
AN/Tad. SSR	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Tadzhik SSR
AN/Turk. SSR	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Turkmen SSR
AN/Uzb. SSR	,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Uzbek SSR
SAGU	Sredneaziatskiy Gosudarstvennyy Universitet (Central Asian State University)
BR	Bakinskiy Rabochiy
FET	Far East Trade
I	Izvestiya
KP	Kazakhstanskaya Pravda
KT	Kommunist Tadzhikistana
NT	New Times
P	Pravda
PV	Pravda Vostoka
SK	Sovetskaya Kirgiziya
SU	Soviet Union
SV	Sovetskoye Vostokovedeniye
T	The Times
TI	Turkmenskaya Iskra
VVS	Vedemosti Verkhovnogo Soveta

THE GREAT GAME

During the first half of the last century Central Asia was the scene of keen political rivalry between Russia and Britain. The Russian intention of incorporating the whole of Turkestan in the Tsarist Empire was already apparent and although the so-called Syr-Dar'ya Fortified Line was not formally reached until 1855, Russian emissaries were already probing the khanates of Khiva and Bukhara. These unmistakable signs of imminent Russian eastward and southward expansion naturally gave rise to British intelligence operations in India's borderlands and beyond. What appeared at the time as a bid for political ascendancy was described by Kaye, the historian of the first Afghan War as "the Great Game".

New attention to the Great Game and to its players has recently been drawn in the book A PERSON FROM ENGLAND, by Fitzroy Maclean, which gives skilfully reconstructed accounts of nineteenth century journeys to Central Asia by British officers and others, with long extracts from contemporary letters and personal memoirs, now mostly out of print and forgotten. The result is an extremely readable book, valuable not only for the human interest of the often remarkable characters involved, but also for the vivid glimpses it affords of government and society in these remote and ramshackle little empires and of the formidable difficulties and dangers facing both the individual traveller and an organized expedition.

The subject of the Great Game was treated from another angle by Professor H. W. C. Davis in the Raleigh Lecture on History, which he delivered before the British Academy in 1926. Professor Davis, although full of admiration for the courage and resource shown by such men as Alexander Burnes, Moorcroft, and many others, was by no means convinced of the necessity for the risks which they took, or of the value of the information which they obtained. He indicates over and over again that the initiative for the expeditions undertaken in Central Asia usually came from the individuals concerned, and that permission was often only reluctantly granted by the authorities. "The investigators", says Professor Davis, "quite unconsciously, were disposed to clutch at every scrap of evidence which corroborated the official theory, and to overlook the circumstances which should have inspired a prudent scepticism. They were not time-servers; but they seldom brought themselves to the point of making a detached and impartial survey of the immensely complex phenomena of Asiatic politics. They were invited to trace the ramifications of Russian diplomacy, to fathom the designs of Russian generals. They did this work efficiently and enthusiastically, with an amazing indifference to the risks and hardships of

the quest. They seldom paused to consider the intrinsic worth of the alliances which Russian agents were negotiating, or the material difficulties which were bound to hamper and might very well paralyse Russia's military plans."

Davis does not specify what the British "official theory" was and both this as well as Russian intentions are matters on which there has been a good deal of difference of opinion. Broadly speaking it may be said that Russian policy was expansionist, but not beyond the frontiers of what Gorchakov later described as "properly organized states", and only in so far as the risk of war with a major European power could be avoided. British policy was mainly concerned with the defence of India; it aimed at keeping Russian influence out of Persia and Afghanistan, but steered clear of going to war with Russia over her aspirations in the Central Asian states. This is not to say that there were no individual Russians who wished to attack India, or individual Englishmen who wished to advance into Central Asia.

Another point made by Professor Davis, which may be of some interest to Soviet historians, is that the British intelligence services in India were by no means solely preoccupied with Russia. There were in the first half of the nineteenth century four main "official seminaries" in which the intelligence officer might learn his business. These were located at Bombay, Cutch, Ludhiana and Tehran, and there were three zones to which missions were directed for the purpose of collecting information necessary to the formulation of defence policies. These three zones were, first, the approaches to the Punjab, Sind, and Afghanistan from the side of Persia; secondly, the hill states lying north and north-east of the Punjab; and lastly, the approaches to Afghanistan from Central Asia. It is of course perfectly true that suggestions for the extention of British support to the states of Central Asia were occasionally put forward by British adminstrators, and especially by such well-known Russophobes as Lord Lytton and McNeill; but they were hardly taken seriously by the British Government and certainly never acted upon. The Indian intelligence organizations were concerned not so much with blocking Russia's expansion in Central Asia as with surveying the routes and logistics of a possible Russian advance against India. But the individual players in the Great Game often became so obsessed with the "Russian menace" and with the ramifications of Russian political intrigue that they virtually discounted the possibility of local peoples, and the Afghans in particular, acting on their own initiative. Thus the rising of November 1841 in Kabul took Alexander Burnes completely unawares; to quote from Davis, he "had been so much absorbed in watching the horizon that he had overlooked what was taking place under his eyes and at his feet". The same tendency to underestimate nationalist stirrings and to overestimate Russia's ability to manipulate internal Eastern politics can be observed today, the most

recent case in point being the British failure to appreciate the situation in Iraq in 1958.

An interesting fact outside the scope of Maclean's work is the keen interest now being displayed by Soviet historians in the exploits of British officers and other emissaries in Central Asia. A number of long studies of these exploits have recently appeared in the journals and bulletins of Universities and Academies of Sciences in Central Asia, and two of them were analysed in the last issue of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW.(1) Russians have always taken very seriously the presence of foreigners within or near their borders and they are apt to assume that all such persons are spies, and as spies are either actuated by the basest of motives, or are carrying out instructions from superiors whose one object is to enslave, exploit and torture everyone who comes within their reach.

The Russians present the analogous activities of Russian officers in quite a different light. It was perfectly natural that the Russian advance from the steppe into the oasis region of Central Asia should be preceded by a careful reconnaissance of the terrain, the tribal situation and the trade possibilities. Considerable details of such reconnaissances are available from Russian and Soviet sources. Thus recently published geographies of the Turkmen and Uzbek SSR show that nearly all these reconnaissances were carried out by Army officers: Captain Murav'yev in 1821 surveyed the coast near the present Krasnovodsk with a view to "finding a suitable place for the construction of a fort which would be convenient for trade and might serve the Turkmen peoples who were seeking the protection of Russia as a shield against their neighbours"; Colonel Berg's expedition explored the Ustyurt in 1825 and Lieutenant Butakov surveyed the Aral Sea in 1848. All these activities, as well as Russian attempts to establish direct trade relations with Kashmir and the Punjab - states adjacent to but not part of British India - can be seen in retrospect as quite normal on the part of a rapidly expanding nation intent on extending its political and commercial influence in Asia. But Soviet historians find it necessary to describe military reconnaissances as "scientific investigation" and intelligence officers as "explorers".

A careful examination of Soviet writing about British intelligence activities in Central Asia shows that today the Russians are not so much interested in exposing exaggerated British fears of the Russian intention to attack India, as in alleged

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(1)"British Policy in Central Asia in the Early Nineteenth Century: The Mission of Richmond Shakespear" and "Russia's Relations with India".

British plans for the annexation and colonization of an area then under independent rulers and hitherto untouched by imperialist expansion. The fact that in the event the area was colonized not by the British but by the Russians is now attributed to the desire of the population to become incorporated in the Russian Empire. It is curious that Soviet historians should still find it necessary to harp on British designs on Central Asia now that Russian rule has been firmly established there for close on a hundred years, and ten years after the removal of British military and civil power from India, the only area from which Russian supremacy in Central Asia could be challenged. A possible explanation is to be found in the wish - perhaps partly subconscious - to establish some continuity in the history of Russia's relations with Central Asia. This continuity was disrupted for 20 years by Pokrovskiy's historical theory which stigmatized the Tsarist conquest of Central Asia as "an absolute evil", and was only abandoned in 1937. The present tendency of Soviet historiography is to substitute the word "incorporation" for "conquest", and to represent that incorporation as an inevitable part of the civilizing mission which Russians both Tsarist and Soviet believe that they inherited from Byzantium.

The tomb of Hajji Murad

Members of the Academy of Sciences of Azerbaydzhan studying historical monuments in the foothills of the Caucasus have found the tomb of Hajji Murad, one of Shamil's closest colleagues. The grave is situated in the Kakhi rayon of Azerbaydzhan, not far from the settlement of Kynchakh. The small grave-stone has an inscription in Arabic: "This is the grave of the deceased leader of the martyred heroes, Hajji Murad the Avar from Khunzakh, the year 1268 Hijri"(1852).

VOPROSY ISTORII, 1958, No. 12.

Chinese mountaineers in the Pamirs

In August a party of Chinese mountaineers visited the Soviet Pamirs and took part in an ascent of Lenin Peak (7134m.). The ascent was uneventful except for the illness of a Chinese woman mountaineer at a height of 6000m. The party, consisting of 17 Chinese and 21 Soviet, scaled the mountain after an expedition of over 21 days.

DRUZHBA, 1958, No. 50.

THE PEOPLES OF CENTRAL ASIA

PAST AND PRESENT DISTRIBUTION

This is the second article in the series of studies on the peoples of Central Asia being undertaken by CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW; the first article, "A Historical Outline", appeared in Vol. VI, No. 4. The reader's attention is drawn to the Appendix at the end of this study which lists articles on related subjects which have previously appeared in the Review.

. . . .

The indigenous population of Central Asia belongs to two racial and linguistic groups - Turkic and Iranian. The first embraces the Uzbeks, Kirgiz, Kara-Kalpaks and Turkmens while the Tadzhiks representing the ancient, pre-Turkic population constitute the second. But the linguistic frontiers are not so clear-cut. Not only do they spread into China, Afghanistan and Persia, but within Central Asia itself they overlap in the border areas of the republics. The results of this vary from one region to another; thus in the towns situated between Leninabad and Bukhara both Tadzhik and Uzbek are spoken, while in the Khorezm region where Uzbek, Turkmen and Kara-Kalpak overlap as well as in the lands along the Uzbek-Turkmen frontier, dialects originating from the mixture of languages are spoken.

The peoples' way of life was profoundly affected by the coming of the Russians, but only the Revolution and the changes arising from it have radically checked its natural development. The distinction between the nomadic and settled population, once so obvious, has disappeared which also to some extent applies to the subdivision of the second group into town-dwellers and agricultural people, the latter being due to the modern economic developments which have caused migration to the new industrial centres.

In the late 1920's and early 1930's the Soviet authorities carried out a great campaign against nomadism which as an unstable element eluded close control by the Government. The action resulted in a great loss of human life and in mass destruction of the nomad's cattle, the latter being so grave that in the following decades the economic life of the area could not recover from the blow. It may be surmised that the suppression of nomadism had some influence on

the state of religion, for though on the one hand the hold of Islam on the country has been undermined as a result of the anti-religious policy of the Government, on the other its hold in various districts may have become more marked as compared with its state in the past when its influence on the nomads was very limited.

The changing pattern of life is also responsible for the fact that the confusing word "Sart" has become obsolete. Before the Revolution it was more or less synonymous with "Tadzhik", being used by the Uzbeks to denote the descendants of the settled population whom the ancestors of the Uzbeks had subdued. Indeed, after 1917 such an old distinction between the conquerors and the conquered has little sense, when both are confronted by a more formidable conqueror.

In some respects the Revolution introduced a measure of artificial unity into the life of Central Asia. The old distinction between the agricultural and cattle-breeding areas has become less acute owing to the suppression of nomadism and expansion of agriculture into the formerly waste lands. The territory, before the Revolution constituting the governorates of Turkestan and the Steppe Region, has been split into a number of republics whose pseudo-national character is an attempt to shatter the religious and to a large extent racial and linguistic unity of the area. This has necessitated the introduction of an unequivocal nomenclature making the division even more definite, as can be clearly seen in the case of the Kazakhs who before the Revolution were known as Kirgiz-Kaysaks, Kirgiz-Kazaks, or simply Kirgiz, in order to distinguish them from the Cossack settlers.

During the Soviet regime there has been a considerable exodus of people from the Central Asian republics into neighbouring countries, particularly during the collectivization period of 1928-32. The principal emigration was of Kazakhs into Sinkiang. There is no record of the numbers involved, but a comparison of the 1926 and 1939 Soviet censuses showed a fall of nearly one million in the total number of Kazakhs in the USSR. Migrations of other peoples into Persia and Afghanistan were on a comparatively small scale.

The Tadzhiks

The Tadzhiks, the oldest of the Central Asian peoples, are descendants of the Soghdians, Khorezmians, Bactrians and the nomad Saki. According to Bartol'd, the word "Tadzhik" is derived from Tay, the name of an Arab tribe. In the tenth century, Tazi, a corruption of Tay, was used locally as a generic term for all Muslims. In the eleventh century the nomad Turkic invaders called the settled population Tadzhik. In the eleventh century the Tadzhiks began to lose their former political predominance in Central Asia which passed to the Turks, though they retained their own culture.

The Tadzhiks constitute the majority of the population of Soviet Tadzhikistan. The census of 1939 revealed that the republic had a population of 1,485,000, 59.5 per cent of whom were Tadzhiks. By April 1956 the total population had risen to 1,800,000. It is convenient to divide the Soviet Tadzhiks into two groups: the people of the mountains, and the plain dwellers. The latter live in the lowland areas of the republic and in some parts of Uzbekistan (Fergana, Samarkand, Bukhara) where their total number in 1939 was 317,000, or 5.1 per cent of the population. There are some in Kirgizia, and also in southern Kazakhstan.

The highland Tadzhiks are a very distinctive group even though their number is not large - only some tens of thousands according to Tokarev. Until the Revolution their region together with the Gorno-Badakhshan oblast was officially known as Eastern Bukhara and belonged to the khanate of that name. Its population was called by outsiders Galcha, originally Garcha, a name derived from gar a mountain.

The ethnic character of the highland area is far from uniform. On the upper reaches of the Pyandzh dwell isolated groups, the so-called nationalities of the Cis-Pamir region, (pripamirskiye narodnosti), which have not yet been completely assimilated by the highland Tadzhiks. Among them by far the largest group are the Shugnani, of whom there were over 21,000 in 1926, at the confluence of the Shakhdara and the Gunt, and the Gunt and the Pyandzh. Though for the purposes of education and literature they use Tadzhik, among themselves they speak their own dialects, with the exception of the small group of Tadzhik-speaking Goranis. The process of the assimilation of such peoples by the Tadzhiks is far more advanced in the regions of Darvaz and Karategin where only faint traces of the old tribal division survive. In the north an interesting group of about 2,500 has preserved its identity; these are the Yagnob in the Yagnob valley, whose language is regarded as the only surviving descendant of that spoken by the ancient Soghdians. Another small nationality of some interest are the Makedoni near the Iskanderkul lake who regard themselves as descendants of the Macedonian invaders. It is, however, interesting to note that the anthropological research of L.V. Oshanin reveals a very large degree of racial uniformity among the various peoples of Tadzhikistan, which is especially apparent in its highland area.

There are more Tadzhiks living outside Tadzhikistan than within its borders. In Afghanistan they represent descendants of its ancient agricultural people and their number is estimated at 2,100,000. They form compact national groups in the province of Badakhshan, the valley of the Hari Rud and some regions on the southern slopes of the Hindu Kush. There are considerable Tadzhik elements mixed with other peoples in nearly all parts of Afghanistan, and in Persia between Nishapur and Sabzavar. There are estimated to be some 17,000 Tadzhiks in Sinkiang.

The Uzbeks

The word "Uzbek" first appeared in history as a personal name borne by Uzbek (1312-40), one of the khans of the Golden Horde, who promoted the spread of Islam so that subsequently Muslim members of the Horde became known as Uzbeks. After its break-up the Uzbeks emerged under Kan Abulkhair (d.1468) as a tribal federation in what is now known as western Kazakhstan. They first came into prominence at the turn of the fifteenth century when under the leadership of Shaybani they conquered the agricultural areas of Central Asia. The short period of the national greatness of the Uzbeks soon ended owing to Persian pressure on their lands and separatist tendencies of their minor rulers. Though they constituted a very large proportion of the population in the Khanates of Bukhara, Khiva and Kokand, they did not achieve even nominal national unity until in 1924 the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic was created. In this connection it is interesting to note that Turkestan (Yasy), a holy city of the Uzbeks containing the tomb of Ahmed Yassavi, a twelfth century Sufi poet and prophet, is now included in Kazakhstan.

In 1939 the population of Uzbekistan amounted to 6,282,000 of whom 4,845,100 were Uzbeks; by April 1956 the total population had risen to 7,300,000. Within Uzbekistan the Uzbeks live in several large groups: the Uzbeks of Khiva on the lower Amu-Dar'ya, on the lower and middle Zeravshan, on the Kashka-Dar'ya, and the Uzbeks of Fergana on the upper Syr-Dar'ya. Outside Uzbekistan they are found in the other Central Asian republics: in Tadzhikistan they constitute 23.8 per cent of the population and they are most numerous around Leninabad, Stalinabad and Kulyab; in Turkmenistan they form 8.5 per cent of the population, and are found mainly in the Chardzhou and Tashauz oblasts; in Kirgizia they live in the Osh and Dzhalal-Abad oblasts, and in Kazakhstan in the South-Kazakhstan oblast.

Some traces of the old tribal particularism of the Uzbeks have survived into the modern period. In the middle of the nineteenth century they were still conscious of their old division into ninety-seven tribes. Among those, apart from the purely Uzbek ones, were Turkic tribes of pre-Uzbek origin (the Kangly, Karluk, Uygur) and some even of pre-Mongol origin (Dzhelair, Nayman, Kytay, Tatar, Mogol, Barlas, Chagatay, Merkit and others). The process of the consolidation of the Uzbeks into a single people is still going on. In the Fergana valley there survive some distinct Turkic groups, the Kipchak and Tyurk, which are still aware of their distinct origin and preserve their own way of life with its emphasis on nomadism. The Kurama on the banks of the Angren, south of Tashkent, are an intermediate group between the Kazakhs and the Uzbeks. The Uzbeks of northern Khorezm call themselves Mangyts, Kungrats, Kipchaks, and some Uzbek groups in southern Tadzhikistan have preserved their tribal names: Tyurk, Karluk, Barlas, Lokay and others. Beside the tribal names, before the Revolution other names were currently derived from the places of settlement of the population; thus various groups styled themselves "men of Bukhara, Khiva, Tashkent" etc.

Fergana Valley

Scale 1 : 1.000.000

Canals.

Main roads.

- Towns with population of under 10.000
- " " " " between 10.000 and 50.000
- " " " " " 50.000 and 100.000
- " " " over 500.000

J.P. 1956.

Specialy drawn for the Central Asian Research Centre. – 1956. – J.P.

The term "Uzbek" originally denoted the politically predominant group in the three Central Asian khanates, but as the process of amalgamation of the conquerors and the conquered advanced, the distinction became increasingly vague and other terms were invented to denote various groups of the population; among those the largest group were the Sarts, mentioned above.

Outside the borders of the Soviet Union there are about one million Uzbeks in Afghanistan; the great majority are settled to the south of the Turkmens in Afghan Turkestan. There are about 8,000 in Sinkiang.(1)

The Turkmens

The problem of the origin of the word "Turkmen" has not as yet been finally solved, for though the meaning of its first part is obvious, the second is still disputable. The most acceptable explanation seems to be that it is derived from the Persian turk-manend "similar to a Turk".

The Turkmens associate their origin with a legendary tribal chief Oguz-khan. The Oguz people appear in historical sources of the eighth century as a powerful tribal federation on the lower Syr-Dar'ya. At the end of the tenth century they began to migrate southwards and establish themselves on the Zeravshan, and there those of them who submitted to the influence of the culture of the settled population and accepted Islam came to be known as Turkmens. But it is erroneous to regard them as descendants of Turkic-speaking nomads from the north and north-east. Their language, belonging to the south-western branch of Turkic languages, relates them to the Osmanli Turks and the Azerbaydzhanis. Anthropologically the long-headed Turkmens are also distinct among the Central Asian peoples and related to the ancient Trans-Caspian steppe race. The above evidence suggests a mixed origin.

In 1939 the population of Turkmenistan was 1,254,000, but at the same time the total number of Turkmens in the Soviet Union was 812,000. By April 1956 the population of the republic had risen to 1,400,000, the Turkmens constituting 59.2 per cent of the total. An unspecified number of them are found in Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan, Kazakhstan, Kara-Kalpakia and the northern Caucasus.

Old tribal divisions still survive in Turkmenistan. The largest tribe is the Tekkeh in the south-west, where they are concentrated mainly in the oblasts of Mary and Ashkhabad; there is a small number also in Persia and Afghanistan. Their neighbours are the Saryk and Salop in the Mary oasis. The Ersari live on the left bank of the middle Amu-Dar'ya, the Yamuts (Iomudy) on the eastern and western borders of the Kara-Kum desert, and parts of the oasis of Khiva are occupied by the Chaudor and Goklan. The Turkmens outside the borders of the Soviet Union have nearly everywhere preserved their tribal division.

They are scattered over a large area between north-western Afghanistan and the western border of the Syrian desert. Their number in Afghanistan is estimated at 380,000 and they occupy the northern part of Afghan Turkestan. The 200,000 Persian Turkmens are mainly concentrated in the regions adjoining the country's northern border. In Turkey there are 70,000 of them, but they have been largely assimilated; in Irak their number is 80,000 and in Syria 30,000.

The Kirgiz

The meaning of the word Kirgiz (or Kyrgiz) is obscure though the Kirgiz themselves derive it from kyrk-kyz meaning "forty girls", this being a reminiscence of the legendary number of maid-servants of a khan's daughter. The Kirgiz are of a mixed origin; they are descended from the tribes and peoples which originally lived in the Tyan'-Shan' as well as from the tribes which in the distant past colonized the lands at the sources of the Yenisey and were known as the Kirgiz. Among the peoples of Central Asia they are distinguished by their anthropological type as they display most clearly the racial characteristics of the Mongols.

In 1939 the number of Kirgiz in the Soviet Union was 884,000. At the same time the total population of Kirgizia amounted to 1,459,000, the Kirgiz constituting 51.7 per cent; by April, 1956 the population of the republic had risen to 1,900,000. In Uzbekistan there are 89,000 Kirgiz, mainly in the Namangan, Andizhan and Fergana oblasts; in Tadzhikistan they are found in the western Pamirs, and some live in Kazakhstan. They have preserved their tribal division; they are divided into two so-called "wings", the On (right) and the Sol (left); each is further divided and subdivided, but the mutual relationship of these divisions is not clear. This system was already in existence in the lifetime of Genghiz Khan and in the Mongol period it was extended to other peoples, but in Central Asia it is limited to the Kirgiz.

Outside the Soviet Union 15,000 Kirgiz live in Afghanistan, about 75,000 in Sinkiang, some in northern Pakistan (2) and isolated groups in Mongolia (3).

The Kazakhs

The derivation of the word "Kazakh" is not clear. Though the Kazakhs believe that it is derived from kas-ak, "a white goose", this explanation is unacceptable to scholars. "Kazakh" is common to the Turkic languages where it denotes free men of the steppes, invaders.

The Kazakhs first entered history in 1456 when two sons of Khan Barak, Girey and Dzhanibek, broke away from their suzerain, Uzbek Khan Abulkhair, and departed with their people to the west. After Abulkhair's death a further group of his subjects joined them and by the end of the fifteenth

century the Kazakh federation in the steppes of eastern Kazakhstan possessed considerable political power. At some indefinite time it fell into three hordes (zhuz): the Greater, Middle and Lesser, and at the beginning of the nineteenth century from among the last emerged the Interior Horde. Some traces of this division still survive. The Kazakhs were the first people of that part of Asia to become dependent on Russia; in 1723 the invading Kalmyks defeated the Greater Horde and threatened the others, which caused the Lesser and Middle Hordes to seek Russian protection, but the Greater Horde did not recognize Russian suzerainty until the middle of the nineteenth century.

Traces of the tribes which originally formed the Kazakh people still survive in the names of "generations" and "clans". Their names and the historical traditions connected with them prove that the Kazakhs were descended from Turkic and Mongol ethnic groups. The older, Turkic, element represents descendants of the Turkic tribes which originally inhabited the steppe lands round the Aral Sea: the Mongol admixture was added by their amalgamation with some Mongol tribes which penetrated into that area in the period of Genghiz Khan. Thus the process of the formation of the Kazakh people took place before the fifteenth century when they first emerged as a distinct national group.

In 1939 there were 3,100,000 Kazakhs in the Soviet Union; at that time Kazakhstan had a total population of 6,146,000, the Kazakhs and Russians together constituting 80 per cent. By April 1956 the population increased to 8,500,000; the proportion of Kazakhs to other national groups is unknown. In 1939 the number of Kazakhs in Uzbekistan was 305,000; figures for the other Central Asian republics are not given. They also live in western Siberia and on the upper and middle Volga. Outside the Soviet Union there are about 350,000 in Sinkiang (4) and some in Mongolia.

The Kara-Kalpaks

Though the word Kara-Kalpak means "a black cap", the origin of the Kara-Kalpaks is somewhat obscure. It is believed that they are descended from the Turkic tribes which in the tenth and eleventh centuries were collectively known as the Pechenegs. It should, however, be borne in mind that the Pechenegs were ethnically an extremely complex group.

The Kara-Kalpaks are first mentioned in historical sources in the sixteenth century; at that time they occupied lands on the lower reaches of the Syr-Dar'ya and were known as the "lower" Kara-Kalpaks to distinguish them from the "upper" Kara-Kalpaks who in the seventeenth century lived on the middle reaches of that river. In the eighteenth century the Kazakh pressure made the "upper" Kara-Kalpaks move to the lands on the Zeravshan and to Fergana, and the "lower" to the delta of the Amu-Dar'ya. The history of the Kara-Kalpaks is closely connected

with that of the Kazakhs and Uzbeks, and their tribal organization is very similar to that of those two peoples.

In 1939 there were 185,800 Kara-Kalpaks in the Soviet Union. Outside Kara-Kalpakia there are some in the Fergana, Bukhara and Khorezm oblasts of Uzbekistan, and there are small groups in Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan. About 2,000 live in Afghanistan.

Notes

(1) 13,600 according to G.P. Serdyuchenko (SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE, 4/57, pp.117-24). The figures given by the GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA are in some cases considerably lower than those provided by him. (See CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol. VI, No. 1, pp.78-79).

(2) GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA, 2nd edn., Vol. 21, 1935, p.102.

(3) Further information on the origin of the Kirgiz is given by G.F.Debec in his article "Nekotoryye problemy proiskhozhdeniya Kirgizov v svete rabot Kirgizskoy arkheologo-etnograficheskoy ekspeditsii" in KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA ETNOGRAFII, Vol. 26, 1957. The article contains a detailed map showing the distribution of Kirgiz tribes in Kirgizia.

(4) 509,000 according to Serdyuchenko.

Sources

1. The figures in this article are taken from the following works:

NARODNOYE KHOZYAYSTVO SSSR, Moscow, 1956.
GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA, 2nd edition.
Article "Etnicheskiy sostav stran Peredney Azii", S.I.Bruk, SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA, 1955, No. 2.

2. Information on the Central Asian peoples has been derived mainly from:

ETNOGRAFIYA NARODOV SSSR, S.A.Tokarev, Moscow, 1958.
GREAT SOVIET ENCYCLOPAEDIA, 2nd edition.

APPENDIX

The following articles on various aspects of the peoples of Central Asia have previously appeared in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW:

The Turkic Peoples of the USSR, Vol. I, No.1.
The Turkmen Population of the Khorezm Oasis, Vol. II, No.2.
The Population of Central Asia, Vol. III, No.2.
Origins of the Kirgiz People, Vol. IV, No.1.
The Social Structure and Customs of the Kazakhs, Vol. V, No.1.
The Population of Central Asia and Kazakhstan, Vol. V, No.2.
Russia and the Kazakhs in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries, Vol. V, No.4.

Rudaki celebrations

The 1100th anniversary of the birth of Rudaki was celebrated in Tadzhikistan on 15th October. Delegates who had been attending the conference of African and Asian writers in Tashkent, including those from India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Korea, Vietnam, Turkey, Iraq and the United Arab Republic, were present.

In the wide coverage given to the event in the press Rudaki was described as the founder of Tadzhik and Persian literature and a spiritual forerunner of the Revolution in that, according to the Tadzhik Chairman of the Council of Ministers, N. Dodkhudoyev, "the poet's dreams became possible only in our era, after the victory of Great October".

KT. 15th, 16th, 17th October 1958

TRENDS IN EDUCATION IN CENTRAL ASIA

Introduction - Middle schools - Teacher training - Progress in vocational education - Post-school vocational training.

Previous articles in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW (1) have dealt with primary, secondary and higher education, as well as earlier attempts at vocational training, mainly on a republican basis in Central Asia. Recent developments, however, show that a new system of education is developing with far more emphasis on practical training, and the following article is an attempt to show the present trends in Central Asia as a whole. The phrase attestat zrelosti (lit. certificate of maturity) has been translated throughout as "matriculation", as the nearest English equivalent to the original. The translation of the word politekhnizatsia has presented considerable difficulty. Where it refers to the transformation of the educational system from the academic to the technical or practical, the use of the word "polytechnization" has been unavoidable; where it refers to the actual technical or practical training of students, the word "vocational" education, or training, has been used.

. . . .

Introduction

A series of modifications introduced into the curriculum of the Central Asian schools in the course of the last few years becomes more comprehensible in the light of Khrushchev's plan expounded in September 1958 for the reform of the Soviet educational system. This seems to bring to a logical conclusion the present period of transition with its basis towards a "school closely linked with life". Though it may be too early to forecast how exactly this new development will affect education in Central Asia, it is obvious that long before his speech outlining the scheme, ground was being prepared there for its realization. The theoretical basis of these developments appears to be derived from Lenin's statement that "no school or university education has any value if one cannot apply one's knowledge in practice".

The XIXth and XXth Congresses of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in 1952 and 1956 respectively, are the principal landmarks in the evolution of vocational education. The purpose of vocational education is alleged to be to give young people a really universal education, the present system having hitherto been too academic and remote from the realities of everyday life. In fact, it may reasonably be presumed that the growing

emphasis on vocational training will ultimately defeat its declared purpose and, by lowering the standard of general education, it will in the long run convert the middle school into another establishment for training skilled workers for industry and agriculture.

Middle schools

"Polytechnization" has affected the whole educational system above the kindergarten stage, but its main theatre is the middle or full-secondary school. So far as its history in Central Asia can be reconstructed from the Central Asian press, it began as a clamour for "drawing the school closer to life" by supplementing theory with practice. Consequently, the great importance of visual aids and experimental science was constantly emphasized. In order to familiarize the pupils with the practical applications of science, the schools began to organize excursions to kolkhozes and various industrial establishments and to devote much attention to workshop training. Gradually the "link between school and life" (svyaz' shkoly s zhiznyu) assumed a more definite character summarized by the phrase "link with productive work" (svyaz' s proizvodstvom.).

The lack of equipment and accommodation from which the schools acutely suffered in the early years of polytechnization was the chief obstacle to expansion; for example, SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of 26.3.55. reports that in 1954 the schools of the republic received some two million rubles to develop their facilities for vocational training, but in spite of that 120 out of the 252 full-secondary schools of the republic still had no physics laboratories, 218 had no chemistry laboratories and 203 lacked biology laboratories, while only 46 out of the 803 seven-year schools had physics and only 30 chemistry laboratories. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 12.2.57. complains that the Uzbek Ministry of Education did not provide schools with funds necessary for the expansion of their workshops. The Central Asian press frequently refers to the shortage of properly equipped workshops in the schools, but the situation seems somewhat better where school experimental gardens are concerned. These conditions are improving, e.g. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 26.7.58. reports that while in the 1956-57 school year the schools of the Andizhan oblast had 180 workshops and 94 greenhouses, by July 1958 the figures were 250 and 143 respectively.

An important part in the expansion of school workshops is played by factories and kolkhozes, which give their superfluous tools and machinery to local schools. Apart from workshops, vocational training is promoted by educational films, by meetings between pupils and leading workers and specialists, and by the pupils' technical study groups or "circles". The purpose of the last is to enable their members to master the agricultural, industrial and technical skills of their choice. Moreover, the importance of the ideological side of vocational education must not be overlooked. According to PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 8.4.58., after the XXth Party Congress the local branches of the Party and komsomol began to devote more attention to the ideological and political enlightenment of their members, particularly

with regard to the correct understanding of their duties towards the state, for it was found that the level of political instruction at numerous schools and VUZ (higher educational establishments) was extremely disappointing. To remedy this, more emphasis is to be laid on the great mission of the Soviet school - inspiring its pupils with love of work - particularly physical work according to TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 19.6.58.

Teacher training

The technical trend in full-secondary school education necessitates far-reaching changes in the training of teachers; they must be qualified not only to conduct practical work in the laboratory, but also to act as demonstrators in the workshop. The shortage of suitable teachers, obviously even more acute in the early years of polytechnization than now, occasionally made local education authorities seek solutions which TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 15.12.56. condemned as bureaucratic: the authorities of the Kazandzhik rayon induced a teacher of language and literature to teach engineering at two full-secondary schools, while a history master was directed to supervise the pupils' practical work in cattle-breeding. A more orthodox way for the school is to obtain the help of local factories, transport firms, kolkhozes etc., collectively described as "organizations patronizing the schools". These enterprises not only provide their schools with machinery, but their specialists give practical instruction in the school workshops and gardens. This method is not altogether satisfactory for the success of these specialists as instructors is hindered by their ignorance of teaching method. These, however, are but half-measures and steps for assuring adequate training of teachers are being taken: according to PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 11.2.58., in the course of 1957 the Teachers Training College in Bukhara much improved the vocational training of students in the physico-mathematics and natural science faculties; the former faculty began to give its students opportunities for obtaining practical experience in industrial, and the latter in agricultural methods. But a serious drawback to the more efficient training of teachers is the shortage of textbooks in Uzbek on various branches of vocational education, especially engineering and vehicle maintenance.

Progress in vocational education

The chief object of vocational education at present is to enable pupils leaving school to "find their place in life" by giving them a definite skill in some branch of industry or agriculture. TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 9.8.58. describes the measures which the schools take to this end. Pupils in the fifth to seventh forms (ages 12-14) receive practical training in the school workshops and gardens, and those in the eighth to tenth forms (ages 15-17) study the "principles of production" either at school workshops or at local factories, kolkhozes and other establishments. The senior pupils obtain pre-professional qualifications in metalwork, electrical engineering, lorry and tractor driving, cotton growing and in a variety of other skills, and on leaving school they often start work at the establishment where they have

received this early training. For example, PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 11.1.58. writes that following from the cooperation between the kolkhoz Namuna and the Karl Marx Middle School in the Termez rayon, more than 70 per cent of the pupils leaving the school find employment at the kolkhoz; the additional gain which the Namuna kolkhoz derives from this cooperation is the help offered by the pupils during the busy seasons of the agricultural year. So far as the school is concerned, a further advantage of such a "link with productive work" is claimed to be an improvement in its internal discipline, for the pupils trained in this manner develop a sense of responsibility and become more serious in their attitude to life and work. How far in fact the above programme is successful, i.e. whether all pupils are skilled workers when they leave school, is impossible to ascertain from the material available; but numerous complaints in the press about the low standard of vocational training at various schools suggest that only the more efficient among them can carry out the scheme.

Various shortcomings in the present state of vocational training make the education authorities of the republics seek more efficient methods to assure its success. The year 1958 is apparently a period of experiment which has produced several schemes. One is for the study of "the principles of production" by senior pupils mentioned above, and another is to increase the number of hours allotted to workshop training. In Turkmenistan these schemes have been introduced into 18 schools in the 1957-58 school year. In 1958-59 this plan is to be extended to a number of other schools. (TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 7.1.58.).

Another plan is described by TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 9.8.58. A considerable shortcoming of the present vocational programme is said to be the overworking of pupils, which affects their health and does not allow them to take an active part in the life of the community. To remedy this, it is proposed to follow the example of the RSFSR by introducing into a number of Turkmen schools eleven-year education at the beginning of the current school year. The main idea of this scheme is to devote one half of the school year to academic study, and the other to work in industry or agriculture in order to enable pupils to master some practical skill.

KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of 26.8.58. gives an account of yet another plan, the leading idea of which is to combine the middle school with productive work. It recommends that middle school education should consist of two stages; the first, covering nine years, is called basic schooling (osnovnaya shkola) and is devoted mainly to a general education emphasizing the study of the native, Russian and foreign languages, as well as the history and geography of Tadzhikstan. The tenth to twelfth classes form the second stage in which practical training is to play the main part, though academic subjects will continue to be studied. But pupils are to be trained to become skilled workers according to the locality of their school - in country districts they will learn an agricultural skill and in town an industrial skill. Together with the

certificate of matriculation (attestat zrelosti) they will receive a certificate confirming their practical training. They will then do one year's work in a job suited to their qualifications. After this they may go to VUZ where admission will be largely determined by the references supplied by the candidate's place of work.

Post-school vocational training

TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 15.6.58. warmly praises a group of tenth form pupils who at the May Day parade in Ashkhabad carried a banner inscribed "After matriculation - to work!" This much-popularized slogan is symptomatic of the new educational policy, whose object is to increase, according to the directives issued by the XXth Party Congress, the number of specialists required for the expansion of the national economy. The laudability of such a step is deeply impressed on the pupils' mind by the "link between school and productive work", and this drive very often produces the desired results. Two of the many cases praised by the press are a good illustration. KAZAKHSTANSKAYA PRAVDA of 25.5.58. says that in 1957, 50 out of 104 school-leavers in the Sary-Su rayon started work. Ashkhabad seems to be a place where schools fulfil their ideological mission particularly well: according to TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA of 19.5.58. and 18.7.58., half of the graduates of schools Nos. 15 and 25 decided to start work, which, together with those from other schools of the city, gave a total figure of more than 300. Also it was estimated that in the same summer some 9,000 pupils would receive certificates of matriculation in the schools of Turkmenistan; and it was planned to send 4,332 of them directly to work with the object of training them to become skilled workers.

This state of perfection, however, is not universal. "Old traditions", that from middle school, pupils should go to VUZ or at least to a tekhnikum still persist and some of the culprits are the parents, such as those denounced in KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of 12.6.58. When those pupils of the tenth form of school No. 2 in the Shakhrinau rayon who were members of the komsomol decided to go to work, many of their parents disapproved. Schools are largely to blame for the fact that their pupils entertain no love of manual labour - in the above rayon nearly 200 students matriculated in the summer of 1958, but only 16-18 were willing to start work. The same paper of 25.5.58. adds: "Why should such sins be passed over in silence?" - There still exist young men and women who do not wish to accept their share in productive work and despise physical labour."

The exemplary school-leaver not only enthusiastically goes to work, but at the same time studies by taking a correspondence course or going to evening classes, if they are to be found where he lives. In this manner he may study any subject he wants, and even obtain a university degree. Such studies are much commended for it is claimed that they give the people concerned practical experience, teach them to overcome difficulties and to see clearly their particular vocation. The above method of further education

is not to be confused with the schools for young industrial and agricultural workers whose purpose is to give middle school education to those who did not complete it at school.

Such "working youth" may study for advanced professional examinations, preferably in order to become specialists in the branch of industry or agriculture in which they are engaged. But they may also become teachers, librarians and graduate specialists. Correspondence courses are provided by tekhnikums and VUZ, and their popularity is proved by the fact that in 1956 the Turkmen State University had over 17,000 correspondence students, many of them recruited from among late school-leavers. (TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 26.12.56.) In addition numerous Ashkhabad workers attend its evening classes. PRAVDA VOSTOKA of 1.7.58. states that more than 26,000 people take correspondence courses in Uzbekistan, but it is not said how many of them are school-leavers. In 1956, according to KOMMUNIST TADZHIKISTANA of 10.5.56., there were 650 correspondence students of the Tadzhik State University. More recent figures are not provided by the available material. The demand for further education for workers varies from place to place. As a rule, where the management of the agricultural or industrial establishment is not interested in promoting the educational ambitions of its employees, very few study and the attendance of those who go to evening classes is poor. Also the attitude of the local Party and komsomol authorities plays an important part in popularizing further education among the workers.

The new educational policy affects secondary-vocational and higher education in more than one way. The changes in the training of teachers, and the stress laid on giving students practical experience in a branch of industry or agriculture corresponding to their studies have been mentioned above, but one of the practical applications of the slogan "After matriculation - to work!" deserves some scrutiny. This is the question of the production stage (proizvodstvennyy stazh), or experience in productive work, as a qualification for admission to VUZ; it is not clear whether this rule applies so strictly to tekhnikums. The word stazh, so far as can be ascertained, came into use in this context in 1957 to denote a period of work, or stint, of at least two years' duration. Central Asian VUZ follow the directions issued by the Ministry of Higher Education of the Soviet Union which give preference for admission to those candidates who have done the stazh and made satisfactory progress as workers; for admission purposes they are in the same category as men demobilized from the army and the navy, and ex-combatants of the Second World War. Before the introduction of the stazh candidates who had matriculated with a gold or silver medal (otlichniki) were normally admitted without the entrance examination; now they must take it in the usual manner while their former privileged position has been occupied by those who have completed the stazh. A good example is the procedure followed by the M.I.Kalinin Turkmen Agricultural Institute which reserves 80 per cent of all places for the

group exempted from the entrance examinations while the rest goes to those who pass the examination, otlichniki included. But the practical interpretation of the stazh as a qualification for admission varies from one VUZ to another, e.g. the Stalinabad State Medical Institute requires all candidates to take the entrance examination and among those who have passed, priority is given to members of the privileged group, including those who have done their stazh. Thus, though the stazh is not indispensable to admission, to secure a place without it is obviously extremely difficult. This makes the more enterprising characters search for other means which are denounced in SOVETSKAYA KIRGIZIYA of 8.6.58. In 1957 a student wished to study at the Kirgiz State University, and procured a document testifying to the completion of her stazh, which in fact she had never done. When the truth was discovered, the rector of the university submitted the case to the public prosecutor. Similarly, another enterprising student, whose matriculation certificate stated clearly that he had finished school in 1957 so that there had been no time for the two years' stazh, changed the date to 1955 and was admitted to the faculty of biology. But the truth soon leaked out, and he had to leave the university in a hurry.

The advantages of the stazh as a qualification for admission to higher educational establishments are alleged to be that it makes the candidates serious minded and more experienced, and gives them a clear idea of what they want to study and why. This explanation, as well as the growth of vocational education in Central Asian schools, clearly shows that during the last few years the way has been prepared for more far-reaching reforms in the spirit of those lately proposed by Khrushchev.

Notes

(1) See "Education in Kirgizia", Vol. I, No. 2, pp.37-40; "Primary and Secondary Education" (Kazakhstan), Vol. II, No. 2, pp.184-90; "Higher Education in Uzbekistan", Vol. III, No. 1, pp.68-75; "Technical Education in Kirgizia", Vol. IV, No. 1, pp.55-59; "Technical Education in Central Asia", Vol. IV, No. 4, pp.354-61; "The Teaching of Russian in Central Asian Schools", Vol. V, No. 1, pp. 37-41.

Sources

Central Asian Press.

LIFE ON THE KAZAKH STEPPE

The following article is a slightly shortened version of a story entitled "Woodland in the Steppe of Kazakhstan" by Viktor Panov, which appeared in NOVYY MIR (1958, No. 9). The Editors of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW consider that this story gives a good picture of an isolated region of Kazakhstan of which little is known today; for this reason only slight abridgments have been made in translation. It is of interest that although the story deals entirely with rural Kazakhstan, all the characters, with the exception of an old man and woman on the road and the gate-keeper in the forest, are Russians.

. . . .

I. Getting a Lift.

I went out of the town early in the morning, spread my waterproof on the grass, and began to wait for a car going my way.

Soon three jolly girls with red bundles came along; and then we were joined by an old Kazakh woman in a white kerchief which covered her shoulders, with gaily-coloured trousers stuck into the narrow tops of her yellow boots; a grey-haired Kazakh appeared with a big staff, in his long garment; and after him there arrived a young Russian in a tractor-driver's overall. We all gazed in silence at the road.

The man in overalls was the first of us to get away; he threw his body over the side of a motor-car like an acrobat. The girls with bundles jumped like goats on to the next lorry while it was still moving and at once began to sing topical songs (chastushki). The Kazakh woman let about a dozen cars pass and then suddenly honoured one with her attention. With the nimbleness of a young matron she clambered up on to a mountain of basins, troughs and children's baths which filled the body of the vehicle, and was carried off into the boundless blue. I was left with the Kazakh with the staff. We panted, screwing up our eyes from the burning sunlight, and discussed the inconveniences of travel on the steppe roads; but soon the old man also got a lift. All alone, lying on my waterproof, baked by the rays of the sun, I did not even notice that I had dozed off...

"Citizen, where are you for? Hi, citizen!"

When he heard my plans the driver opened the door of his cab in silence. At last I had found a companion who was driving towards the strip of woodland that stands between the basins of the Ob' and the Irtysh, among the steppes of South Siberia and Kazakhstan. His name was Poplavsky and he looked about thirty.

"This isn't the first time you've been along this road?" I asked him.

"The thousand and first."

From the main road from Pavlodar to Semipalatinsk we turned on to a narrow road, with a hard surface, which might have been ironed out across the steppe, and gradually we drew away from the expanse of meadow-land watered by the Irtysh, the dark-green strips of poplar merging with the brushwood, the bright patches of the lakes.

I scrutinized the grasses: a preponderance of perennials, feather-grass in abundance, tufts of unfading rone, milfoil with its tiny curls, bean trefoil and, most important of all, wormwood of every kind: low and tall, scented and unscented, on the fallow, on the virgin soil, among the maize, a blue ribbon stretched by the roadside.

We drove for a long time through the sameness of the steppe. Here we had a glimpse of a plough, left out since the spring at the edge of some black ploughland; there we saw a shepherd (chaban) in his malakhay, his big fur hat with ear-flaps, and with him a flock of sheep and their guardian dogs.

A small settlement came into sight. There were no people in the short, broad street. On the flat roofs of the huts, built of layers of dung and saman, bearded goats were standing and walking about, like dignified old men. A good many houses were roofed with slate or corrugated iron - something new on the steppe. And quite unexpectedly we caught sight of a capacious store-house, put together from angular slabs of raw stone.

"For wheat," Poplavsky nodded at the store-house. "There are - not hundreds: thousands of them now - stores. One summer there was a harvest of a thousand million puds(1). They'll get the same this year too. One doesn't starve."

Along the street of this farmstead we went more slowly, in order not to run over chickens, or collide head-on with a brindled bullock. Outside the farmstead, in disorderly dumps, were tractors, seed-drills, stacking-machines, threshing-machines, cultivators.

"Here there are more machines than people," Vasily answered my perplexed gaze. "Millions of motors."

Another fifty kilometers over the steppe, and before us were the typical farm-buildings of a new sovkhoz.

"This yielded three million puds of wheat to the state in four years", said my driver.

I had a good look at the farm-buildings: three million puds of wheat -- that's no fleabite! The settlement was clearly not of the village type: the houses had three, four, and eight apartments. There was a big shop, an office, a dining-hall; but there were no outbuildings to be seen, although these are extremely necessary to a villager for his cows, pigs and fowls.

"Where do they keep their own stock?"

"They haven't any. They haven't even planted a single tree under the windows of the houses, as if they don't intend to live here at all. They harvest the wheat, and that's that!"

Millions, milliards, of puds of wheat: that is the measure of the success of Kazakhstan, and the conquerors of the virgin soil will hardly leave this place. I spoke of this to Poplavsky: the young man agreed:

"Many will stay, of course, where there are such riches."

It was now past noon, but the heat of the day had not yet diminished. The wind was gradually rising. Smoke-coloured whorls of earth were racing over the glittering road, like foxes' brushes; tinkling rivulets rose, of sand and small pebbles, and poured across the ploughland, not checked by the plantains, not slackened by the wormwood. As if they were crazily drunk, the globular clumps of glasswort floundered frantically about, the infallible prophets of a storm on the steppe, or appeared in the road and jumped and skipped about it.

A pillar of earth was rising and growing wider above the ploughland, such as are to be seen on films after the explosion of a shell; but those pillars spout up into the air and quickly disappear, leaving craters behind, while this tossed-up fountain of earth not only did not melt away, but grew more and more powerful, and travelled menacingly over the countryside, savagely tearing up and hurling aloft clumps of glasswort, wormwood and goosefoot. We stopped in order to let one whirlwind pass us, but another blast caught us at once. At three paces nothing was visible; fragments of stems were spinning frenziedly in the light of our headlamps, sand and pebbles were beating upon the cab, and we were being sprinkled with fine, gritty dust, which got down inside our collars although the doors of the cab were tightly shut.

The lorry was standing still. Covering our heads with our waterproofs and screwing up our eyes, we sat in the cab and listened to the howl and whistle of the wind and to the pebbles hitting the lorry.

Poplavsky spread a piece of sacking over us which, held up by our heads, was a reliable protection against the prickly, red-hot sand. We could not see each other: we could see nothing, but we did not stop talking.

"This year we had rain, and got a crop, but last summer there were three sand-storms like this. In the first one I was halted for two hours out of doors, the second caught me in the garage. I heard from our manager: three sand-storms -- three hundred thousand hectares of sown land buried in our oblast. Of course that's not such a disaster if there are three million hectares sown in the oblast: ten per cent, like, covered up by the wind. Cut down the wood, and the chips must fly."

"Ten per cent: that's enough, surely." I was still afraid to open my eyes.

Poplavsky grumbled:

"Anywhere beyond the Urals they wouldn't believe it -- in summer time the wind'll cause drifts deep enough to bury a lorry. Leave anywhere unploughed, and the wind blows the sandy soil up into the sky - the sand sticks to the sun." Vasily took the sacking from his head.

"A drought-bringer."

"Not a drought-bringer: a sand-bringer."

It was a sunny day but we drove slowly with our lights switched on, in order not to miss our way.

To our right was the grey countryside, looking as though a soldier's great coat had been spread over it; to our left black furrows lay across the sown land, like mourning-bands. The slim spikes of the wheat were smothered up to the tops in sand; sand was heaped over the maize, too: even the field brome, which stands up to wind and drought, looked grey.

"Measures ought to be taken", Poplavsky announced grimly. "Timothy-grass, quitch and bent. There ought to be green strips between the plough-lands: they'd hold back the sand. A wise man opened up the solid virgin soil, but a fool lifted the sand, too, with his plough. Go on go on, just so that there are more hectares to reckon for the report and for the payment of the tractor-men."

On the horizon a blue mist of woodland came into sight. Poplavsky turned his head towards it, the green stronghold that has stood here for thousands of years.

"The Kulunda pine", he said. "The Kulunda Steppe everybody know about; but the pine - not many have heard of that."

II. The Threshold of the Green

In the wide street of a steppe village there are no blades of grass - sand, and then more sand. Sparse stalks of quitch, a plant extraordinarily tenacious of life, thrust up through the sandy hillocks.

Tractors were standing in the workshop, which was not yet finished. Carpenters and plasterers were working quickly; reeds were being bound into bundles on the spot. It was easy to understand, without words, that the kolkhoz had bought tractors from the MTS and was hastening to set up its own repair-shop.

"A complete revolution in farming", Vasily remarked. "Kolkhozes are beginning to rise as though they had yeast in them."

We drove out of the village. In fifteen kilometres the wall of the forested zone rose up before us. Its beneficient influence could be felt at once. A little way back on the road I had seen short, stunted feather-grass, but here it was bending before the wind like thick oats. On the bare, dry steppe you do not often spot mugwort, but here, in the neighbourhood of the trees, you could admire its strong panicles of reddish flowers. And the sheep's fescue is taller, the white melilot, that smells of new-mown hay, grows a yard high, and the cornflower of the meadow would hardly recognize itself. You look about and you see clover, spiraea and catchfly with its hairy heads.

"You'll notice", my companion explained, "in these places there is always a crop. Even if there's no rain, let there be just a wee bit of seed, it'll grow none the less. And what does it? The old boy takes care of it", Vasily nodded at the woodland. "He stands there like a trusty green barrier, and doesn't let the wind or the sand get above themselves."

Even at the beginning of our drive Poplavsky had been lamenting some birch coppices, and now he began again to say that in the coppices the timber was being cut down and sawn up and trampled by cattle.

"Where's that?"

"Oh, on our sovkhoz, in the Mikhailovsky rayon."

"You're from Mikhailovka? You mean you've been driving for seventy-two hours just to fetch seven cubic metres of timber?"

"Well, what can you do?" He smiled bitterly. "In our rayon great quantities of usable birch were taken away even before the arrival of the tselinniki (cultivators of virgin soil), and we were left with little poles of trees. You listen to the old people: crops, lakes, game, bees - they all dwindled along with the woods."

The mournful tale of the birch coppices situated between Omsk and Pavlodar was no news to me. In the Pavlodar oblast they are reckoned now at about seventy thousand hectares, and used to be much more. Birch copses had existed for hundreds of years on the steppe, perhaps because the population was less and there was no motor transport.

"Oh, it's not a question of motors; it's a question of conscience", was Poplavsky's rejoinder.

Indeed this uncontrolled felling has become a disaster. The woodland belt is under the protection of special laws, but the birch copses on the same steppe enjoy no rights of preservation at all. These copses ought to have been included in the former group long ago: felling should be allowed, but only if it is linked with care and reafforestation.

"There should be something about it in the paper! And about the sand!" Poplavsky cried.

"Haven't you tried?"

"Many times! You write, and you get an answer to say that your remarks have been sent on somewhere... Our paper's always got room for the harvest, but for the woods - not a hope. But in fact the crop depends on the trees."

We had driven up to a forester's check-point. Out of the hut with its high plank roof, pitched four ways, came a dusky Kazakh woman in red boots, a red kerchief on her head, holding a long cigarette. She went without to the barrier and raised it, and we crossed the boundary between the steppe and the first strip of woodland in the Barnaul-Kulunda-Semipalatinsk triangle.

And these were the only pine belts in the world standing in a sultry steppe. For thousands of years these trees have been holding up their rugged sides under wind and storm. They have been burnt, they have been cut clean down, they have been buried in sand, and yet nature has come out on top: the woodland belts have renewed themselves in the remains of the delta of an ancient river, in narrow gullies which seem to have survived since the melting of the glaciers.

The green giants had been eternally defenceless; but then, in 1943, they were given equal rights with the woods inside towns and at health resorts: that stopped the axes. And four years later the reafforestation of the forested zones began, and nurseries for pine seedlings appeared. After that the felling of mature and overgrown timber was permitted, and corrective felling, etc., began to be carried out, which facilitated the restoration of the woods.

We bump into roots as we drive on. Here and there on the sandy hummocks there stand thick-set pines with dead branches sticking out of their trunks

almost from ground-level. These are the front-line troops, the outskirts of the woodland belt that receive the attacks of the "sand-bringer".

"They're secured by anchors", Vasily says of the pines growing at the edge of the belt.

"Anchors?"

"What are you smiling at? These pines keep the whole belt from being carried away along with the sand. Lateral roots - every pine is provided with them; but here they have to have a root sunk like a pile, too: it goes down deep, like an anchor. You try and tear up a tree like that!"

Is it a driver I am travelling with? Isn't he an agronomist? Or a forester who's taken on the job of a driver? No. It appears Vasya Poplavsky has done his ten years' schooling, then he was first a tractor-driver, then learnt to be a car-driver, and now he is in the course of being "promoted" to a mechanic, only he does not want to get mixed up with looking after vehicles: there are a hundred and fifty of them in the sovkhoz!

"Yes, a hundred and fifty drivers, each with his own temperament: how are you to find a common language with each of them? But here" - he points at the steering-wheel with his chin - "I'm my own master... Well, of course one reads a few different books. And you hear about the forest belt from the foresters, or rather..." he paused with a smile, "from one forestress."

"Is she in the belt?"

"Yes."

"I see. And you drive three hundred kilometres to get there?"

"Someone's got to go and fetch the wood. I get sent."

We turn off into a ride: the soft-grey ruts of the sandy track stretch along it quite straight, with tall quitch growing on the ridges between the tracks of the wheels. We pass small posts dividing the wood into areas and plots. The wood suddenly becomes more open, and in the broad, bright glare numerous aspens are shivering and shaking their leaves with their whitish undersides glittering.

III. The Forestry Section

Our lorry stopped by a hut with a plank gate and an osier fence. Vasily went into the forestry office and I walked towards the hut.

"Mamma's not in: she's at the plantations," I heard from inside the

fence. "Oh, no: Mamma's at the nursery to-day. My sisters are at the plantations."

In the small garden a slim, quick-eyed little girl was watering a tree-shoot, the size of a pencil, from a huge bucket. I went closer.

"And where's it better, at the nursery or at the plantations?"

"There's nowhere you can get a ruble for nothing." Clearly the little girl was repeating someone's words. "At the nurseries - patience; in the plantations, using your hatchet all day long under the sun - patience again..."

Listening to the talkative child I looked at the log huts. There is a great difference, though, between a settlement on the steppe and a settlement in the woods. On the steppe the village street is broad, the white cottages are built at a distance from each other, and there is room next them for pyramids of dung-and-straw briquettes, for ricks of straw and for hay. But in a hamlet in the woods the street is narrow and the rooms in the houses are small; they are roofed with planks and look like old men wearing caps and scowling. Every householder has his fence. There was a log fence reaching right up to this small five-walled house also, with, behind it, a small barn, a small bath-house, a well, a heap of logs and a knotty stump, standing like an idol. A short, square woman of about forty-five came in from her work. Her face, and her arms which were bare to the elbows, were so sunburnt that they were hardly distinguishable from her dark frock, especially now, in the twilight. This was my small talker's mother, Tat'yana Pavlovna Bezrukova, a delegate to the oblast council. She has won more than one prize for her splendid work at the nursery.

"I have four daughters, and my son came back from the army not long ago", she told me, throwing some billets of wood into the wide jaws of a Russian stove. "Himself was killed on the Kalinin front. A sniper. I've lost my husband, and the children - I've five round my neck. Think of having to feed them. The whole gang has come to work in the nursery with me - my girls grow and my pines grow, and it gives me pleasure to look at them. I began with three beds in the nursery, and now I've got three hundred!"

Tat'yana Pavlovna is satisfied on the whole with life in the forest belt, only she complains of having nothing to do in winter. In the summer there is not time to stop and take breath, and you earn good money; but when winter comes on it's more than you can bear, with nothing to do.

Her son's voice came from another room:

"On the sovkhozes they're idle in winter, too. Soon as they've got the corn in, there's nothing to do. The rootless ones go away, to their relations or to earn money; but by the spring they find their way back to

the sovkhoz. And if things were done sensibly it'd be possible to provide work for everyone in winter, too, both on a sovkhoz and in forestry... You go to the oblast meetings: you might say something about it."

"What haven't I said? And I'm not the only one..."

Tat'yana Pavlovna rolled out some fresh, flexible dough on the table, turned to me, and explained:

"The children picked some sorrel on the steppe, so I thought we'd have dumplings."

Tat'yana Pavlovna's other three daughters came in from the plantations. They were grown-up young women.

"Finished?" their mother asked.

"Finished," the girls answered all together.

"May say we've finished," said the eldest; "but the yearlings are covered up to the tops in sand, and the screens have been blown down, every single one."

"Up to the tops. Really?" The mother put her hands to the dough.

"To the very tops! A fearful storm blew in across the plain, from the direction of the Black Hill."

"Yes, it was a terrific storm." I wanted to have some talk with the polite Bezrukov family, and the girls laughed as I described how Poplavsky and I had sat in the cab of the lorry, huddled in the discoloured sacking.

Tongues of flame slithered up the sooty chimney from the capacious stove. The red light was reflected from our faces and hands, and we, looking like Red Indians, devoured bitter-sweet dumplings stuffed with the fresh sorrel. Now I could see the girls' faces properly.

"But where's your driver?" the third daughter, who had big eyes with long lashes, asked me, burning her fingers on a dumpling.

The youngest, the slender little girl, quickly answered for me:

"I was watering the maples, and he went into the office."

Tat'yana Pavlovna's son, a muscular young fellow dressed in a thin, pink jersey, made a remark in the tone of the eldest of the family:

"The dumplings are spoilt: there's a bit too much sugar. I said at

the time: 'Put less sugar in.'"

"There's just enough sugar," his mother answered. "Without sugar they taste sour."

A squabble began, and at the height of it Poplavsky appeared in the hut.

"What's this row? Let me try!" he came to the table and took a dumpling, then a second and a third.

They all laughed, and I could see they were pleased by Vasily's arrival.

I asked Tat'yana Pavlovna how the seeding of woodland is done and she explained.

"In these parts the whole of nature is against the trees all the year round," said Tat'yana Pavlovna, "but we are planting trees, and we are eternally at war with nature."

"You may be fighting a war," Poplavsky calmly sipped tea from his saucer; "But it takes a hundred years to get logs from your pine seedlings. We haven't time to wait."

"Don't wait, then: there's enough timber in the forest belt for your lifetime. You work, and meanwhile we'll be growing timber for your grandchildren."

I was feeling drowsy, and I could not help confessing that I was very sleepy. Then they all began to bustle about. Although I tried hard to refuse to have a bed, or asked them to spread some bedding for me on the ground in the shed, I was given a feather-bed indoors.

After all this bother I lost my desire for sleep. It felt stuffy, my bed was too narrow, and the moonlight disturbed me. I sat on the bed and went over the day in my mind. I thought about Poplavsky: he must have brought me deliberately to this family when he stopped the lorry at the Bezrukovs' fence as though by chance. And suddenly, through the window, I saw Vasily with a girl; they were leaning their elbows on the blunt bonnet of the lorry and talking. Was it the eldest? I looked hard. No, not she, but the girl with the big eyes. Poplavsky was annoyed, and raised his voice: something had upset him. The girl was laughing.

I opened the window a tiny crack: curiosity would not let me rest.

"I shan't come."

"Nadyusha, you can't refuse."

"Why can't I? You know yourself that we Bezrukovs are a famous gang. We've grown more than a thousand pines and birches. And what is there at your place on the steppe?"

"Everything! Corn, meat, milk."

After a pause, the girl asked dejectedly:

"All the same, why don't you want to live in the woods?"

"Well, why should I?"

"And me? Why should I move from the woods to the steppe?"

"We've got woods, too."

"I know: birch thickets. And we live in a forest belt - the only one in the world. You must understand that."

In the morning I had a talk with a forester who lived in the same settlement. Vlas Vlasovich had worked for thirty years in the forest belt, as a warden, fireman and forester. He had had no higher education, indeed strictly speaking he had not even had the seven years' schooling, but as a forester he was one of the best there. His woman assistant had been at the Forestry Institute.

Every day the old man took his ramshackle one-and-a-half tonner out of the garage and himself drove the women weeders into the woods to the nursery, and the fellers to their sections. Vlas Vlasovich visited section after section, checking the previous day's work. The master's eye, he said, is specially needed where purveyors from the sovkhozes and kolkhozes are at work preparing the stores of wood, because they go for the timber a hundred to a hundred and twenty years old, and avoid the pines older than that.

"You have to follow one of those chaps with his axe and say, 'Cut this one, but don't touch that.'"

Like all old people who are getting on Vlas Vlasovich enjoyed recalling his young days in the forest belt. No, he'd never been bored. As if a man could be bored in a wood like that!... Fires were a worry, yes. They used to rage over hundreds of hectares, fences were burnt, cattle perished and the flames would spread to the dry mother-steppe itself. But not now. Now there were towers above the forest, with firemen on watch day and night, connected by telephone with the forestry centres and the administration.

We came back slowly along a wide glade from the plantations. Sheltered among the trees from the "drought-bringer", there is a carefree life for the narrow-leaved cereal plants, the catchfly, spiraea, which occupies a wide area in a continuous clump, quitch, and fescue. A small copse of five-year-old pines, a glittering grove of aspens - and again the glade with its varied grasses.

"I thought I'd try growing some birch out here," says Vlas Vlasovich. He strokes the cylindrical heads of the timothy-grass and the stalks of the foxtail, points me out some oat-grass, finds some sheep's fescue, and some wheat carried by the wind from the steppe into the forested zone.

"Summer wheat, but it's growing as if it was winter wheat. And there's some millet: there's a lot of it here... I've lived here for ages, and I don't remember one summer when there wasn't a good crop of millet. There was a time when not a single cereal would grow: but millet - like anything!" It is known that the area round a forest belt is the most suitable place for millet; knowledgeable people have written to the papers about it, but still little millet is sown. Vlas Vlasovich went on: "It ripens and falls very quickly; they don't like harvesting it. When it's ripe... don't dawdle. But we've got some people who're very fond of dawdling."

"And they're not used to sowing millet", I suggested.

"No, of course... It's the same thing with the wind-screens for the trees: we've been talking about them for twenty years, and they're not here, and the sand comes. They plough, and a fearful amount of sand comes... If only they'd go at tree-growing properly, like they did at cultivating the virgin soil - birches and maples would be rustling in the steppe, and the pines would be well dug in... We'll plough for ten years running, and then the steppe will go back to the wild, the people go away. And our woods'll wither. Love for the woods is dwindling away. Ask anyone at Pavlodar or Semipalatinsk, as long as he's not a driver or a forwarding agent, and doesn't go to fetch timber and firewood - ask anyone what the forest belt is, what direction it's in, how many kilometres it is to it - nobody knows. There should be a House of Rest here, and Pioneer camps: they never discover the best place of all. With the steppe and the woods we'll beat two Americas with our crops!"

We were approaching the nursery. The sun was burning mercilessly. The screens blown down by yesterday's squalls were lying on top of the beds like great combs.

"It's the most difficult thing of all to grow birches", Tat'yana Pavlovna told me, busy weeding, like the other women. "In the nursery the birch does well and lives happily, but, as soon as it leaves the nursery for the plantation as a two-year-old, then it's not a success."

"What is easy to grow, then?"

"Maple! It grows strongly, like an aspen. That's what ought to be grown as wind-breaks: maple screens!"

"But the birch is better if it's properly supported in the early years", says the voice of Nadya Bezrukova, and I think of Poplavsky.

"How did you sleep?" Nadya asked me.

"All right, thank you: and you?"

"By the evening you can't feel your legs under you. I slept very soundly."

"And when did my friend Vasily drive away?"

"That we don't know." The girl's face does not change at all, and she does not raise her hands from the bed, in order not to be left behind by her quick-working neighbour. "He drives off at dawn, as soon as there's the first tiny rustle of the early wind in the woods."

"Sensible chap", I say.

IV. The Young Mistress of the Forest

On the same day I made the acquaintance in another forestry section of a young woman who was the mistress of a hundred and thirty thousand hectares of wooded belt.

She was dark-eyed, with long plaits, and wore the foresters' uniform. She put her hand out awkwardly and introduced herself:

"Lyudmila."

When she heard that I came from Moscow the girl livened up, and our conversation became unconstrained.

She found it dull here; for a long time she had felt out of place in the forest.

"I have no days off", said Lyudmila. "I haven't the right to be away from my job without permission from the director of the administration; and in the heat of summer it doesn't do even to think of going away." She sighed. "I live as if I was chained up. I don't even dream of going to a theatre: the cinema's in the barn. We've got a lot of timber, and it would have been possible to build a big cinema; but who would come?"

We were slowly crossing a hollow left in the wood by an old fire: the timber had been entirely destroyed and there had come up instead a thick growth of perennial plants: briar roses glowed and the violet bells of campanula swung incessantly.

Lyudmila picked some bright-yellow flowers of tansy, and began to tell me about it.

"Observe, it's used against headaches and epilepsy, sick people with reduced acidity drink it..." She bent over a dryish stalk with a white flower and named a dozen or so ailments in which this plant was successfully used.

"Lyudmila Ivanovna! You ought to have learnt to be a doctor!"

"I have never thought of it. I look at all herbs with the eyes of my mother, and she is a chemist. She asks me in her letters about the plants that grow in the forest belt, and that makes me look in reference books and try to find people who know about healing herbs. Now we're going to the hollow where the cranberries are. They grow in all latitudes, and their berries, too, make excellent medicine; but I'll show you the bearberry", Lyudmila rummaged in the grass. "The berries are red like sealing-wax. The curative properties of the bearberry are widely known: it's also called 'bear's ear'."

In the undergrowth, among the quitch and timothy-grass, lay the gigantic corpses of trees: they looked like the others, but if you stood on any of them you would go through into rotten dust.

These trees, said Lyudmila, were cut down nearly forty years ago, in Kolchak's time, when he was in a hurry to lay a railway from Omsk to Semipalatinsk. In those days there was no use for them and no motor transport to move them, then the opening up of the virgin soil began and the demand for timber grew, but by then the fallen trees had rotted.

So it was. In the Pavlodar oblast alone many new sovkhozes have been founded in the last few years, and in the kolkhozes, too, building has increased more and more. Demand for timber had grown so much that in a short time the forest belt has become visibly sparser.

"So when I'd finished my course they sent me here to put things into shape." Lyudmila sighed heavily, was silent, and then spoke as if to herself: "We'll go now to the deputy manager of the administration; and the oblast inspector has come, too. They'll tick me off for this and for that, in the past and in the present; and I shall be thinking all the time about escaping from the forest. Now tell me, on your conscience: ought a young woman, town-bred, to be put to live in a forest for ever?"

Then, without naming names, I told of the conversation I had overheard the night before.

"What are you saying? If you're talking about the neighbours, there are two Bezrukov daughters who've done the ten-year course. However, there are lots of young people in that section who've had a secondary education. And it's true a Bezrukov girl would hardly leave the forest zone now. Tat'yana Pavlovna would make no end of a fuss."

"But why shouldn't you set yourself just such an object?"

"Me?...Be a heroine? And besides... Now Vlas Vlasovich's got lots of interesting ideas, too. You have a talk with him some time."

At a boundary post we met the inspector who had come from Pavlodar and the deputy manager of the administration. We sat down on a big tree-trunk and the inspector, in a forester's jacket with the Komsomol badge on the breast pocket, looked round him and pointed out to us a round hole in the reddish-brown bark, as if there had been a small nail there. I did not understand at all, but a slight flush appeared on Lyudmila's cheeks: the young mistress of the woods was in the wrong. The tree had been felled in the spring, and the bark-beetle had already penetrated its thick shirt in numerous places.

"Who's spreading this infection in your woods, Lyudmila Ivanovna?"

"The combine", Lyudmila answered with marked calmness.

"Why don't you have them fined?"

"I've spoken to them, and written. We don't allow them into the woods with a tractor, and you can't get the stuff out quickly with oxen."

"Lyudmila Ivanovna, we're going to punish you."

The girl was silent, although she might have told how out of the combine's six mechanical saws three were not working, and how many of the logs brought to the saws could not be sawn up because they were too thick. She might have recalled that there were considerable quantities of mature and over-mature timber in the sections, and the combine's stock of timber was allotted to it somewhere fifty kilometres away: but all this had been said many times already, and put on paper.

"Why are stocks of timber allotted by the Oblast Planning Board, not by us?" Lyudmila's face grew red and her eyes flashed. "Let them give a comprehensive figure for felling in the forest zone, and we'll allot sections ourselves. The combine felled a little of my wood in April, and then went off to fell half a hundred kilometres away and forgot about this

forest. They don't manage to pay punctually for the timber they've felled, and I'm to get them fined as well! Fines and quarrels: that's no way to work."

"And is this?" The inspector pointed to the tracks of the beetle in the trunk.

"It shall be taken away to-morrow or the day after."

Two young woodmen were working in the thick pine-wood. White chips were flying. The inspector remarked that dead wood ought not to be cut but sawn. The woodmen looked at their young boss: what would she say? Lyudmila was silent.

"Has anyone told you that?" the inspector asked the men working.

"My fault," said Lyudmila abruptly. "I know sawing is the proper way, but we couldn't find a saw for this job."

We walk unhurriedly through the wood. On a sandy hillock is a thick young growth of pines, shadowed by two spreading tree-tops. The inspector stops by the young growth.

"Clearing ought to be done in time, and light let in", he remarks.

"We haven't enough hands", Lyudmila sighs, and then says sharply. "We're too fond of thinning. From lighting and clearing we get sticks and branches, but from thinning we get poles - in other words, something to sell. So we go in more for thinning, and there aren't enough hands for clearing. Are we right?"

The inspector said nothing and Lyudmila added:

"We're in a hurry to make a profit."

In a talk with Vlas Vlasovich I told him my impression of the woman who was his assistant. The forester listened attentively to my remarks and anxiously smoothed his grey temples.

"People like Tat'yana Pavlovna's girls ought to be sent to the forestry colleges. In their cradles their mother whispered to them about pine seedlings in the nursery and plantations, and then when they'd done their ten years of school they came into the work themselves, too: they had the taste for it... But as for Lyudmila Ivanovna...well, I'm not going to blame her. I've seen dozens of young engineers here from the academies, from the institutes. They buzz round, flutter about, and then fly away. The forest, you see - you've got to have the peculiar habit of it. But that girl - I think she won't fly away. To start with she got a good grip of the grasses,

and now she listens to us older men; and she's not going to let the management allot timber supplies in that senseless way. She'll turn into a forester yet: you mark my words."

V. The Protection of the Green Belts

At Pavlodar, in the forestry directorate, I was shown some striking figures.

In the forest belt in the first summer of the opening-up of the virgin lands: 282,000 cubic metres of mature and over-mature timber had been cut; in the second summer 352,000; in the third 483,000; and in the fourth half a million cubic metres. This was in the Pavlodar oblast alone, not counting the Altay region. From summer to summer ever-increasing quantities of forest-belt timber will be felled.

It is calculated that last summer a hundred thousand trips were made by motor transport into the forest: in the next few years the number of these trips will be doubled, trebled. And what does a lorry's visit to the forest mean? Where a lorry and trailer turns around a dozen young pines are injured. Hundreds of men going ahead to get the timber ready, hundreds of paths, hundreds of thousands of wheel-tracks. No wonder the forestry administrations are even now ploughing up the paths into the woods, and cutting deep trenches across them, leaving only the indispensable tracks to the gates at the edge of the woods.

A tree, when it is sawn and falls, damages the young growth. All the summer the top and lop of the felled trees is stacked ready for burning in the autumn. If a pile is burned inside the wood, dozens of young pines are destroyed with it. A million trees felled means ten million destroyed by trees falling, and in or near bonfires. Small branches can be pressed into blocks and slabs; compressed pine-twigs - pure resin - make splendid fuel. Perhaps ordinary hay-presses would do; there are plenty of them at the kolkhozes and sovkhozes in Kazakhstan, but there is little use for them. There are other possible uses for the top and lop, but at least they should be taken out of the woods before burning so that bonfires in the forest belt shall not ruin the young growth.

"Bonfires aren't the chief enemy of the forest belt," says Vlas Vlasovich. "The most dangerous thing for it is the hundreds of advance-workers. They come into the sections with one object only: to take away timber. So they cut the woods to pieces, driving tracks in any direction, if only they can get out more easily with their load..."

Yes, that is all true. The forestry administration allots to the advance-workers the timber standing, shedding the responsibility for its felling, and the advance-workers become complete masters in their section.

Speculation flourishes: the management of the forest belt cannot pay, for example, more than six rubles for a cubic metre of timber, but a kolkhoz pays forty. The shark, who has been hired to get the timber ready for a kolkhoz, makes liberal terms with a travelling gang and will not be the loser himself, because he will by-pass the forest gate and smuggle timber out for sale.

In the birch coppices of the Irtysh country unauthorized felling has become a calamity One small estate has been robbed of more than seven hundred cubic metres of timber in one summer; in three years four estates had 3,300 cubic metres of birch stolen, that is thirty thousand trees. Thieves steal from the forest belt too; they come in lorries and light trucks, and the foresters are on foot.

I was told at the forestry directorate that there has not yet been an instance in which the Pavlodar oblast has taken any interest in the growing of timber, but in felling it, on the other hand, it is constantly interested. On occasion if current stock is exhausted the Oblast Executive Committee (oblispolkom) gives orders for future stock to be felled.

There is a crowd of people who want permission to get wood queuing up at the oblispolkom. Why at the oblispolkom? Why do people have to go for wood to the Regional Committees (raykomy) of the Party? What is wanted is one purveyor who knows the needs of the oblast, not hundreds, as there are now. All the forestry workers are talking about this. One commissary: that means machine-saws in the belt, timber-trimming appliances, the provision of standard houses, stables, cow-byres. At once the necessity will fall off for allowing fifty motor vehicles every day into the felling sections, superfluous tracks will disappear, the number of gates will be reduced, thieves will become extinct. Autumn bonfires will not be lit at haphazard in the felling sections; perhaps presses will appear for making blocks out of top and lop. The commissary will have to concern himself about the growing of timber: he takes the crop - he'll have to see to the sowing!

I was waiting for Poplavsky at the barrier-gate of the wood, in order to go back to the town with him.

Vasily, ploughing through the sand, the body of his lorry filled with logs, drove up to the barrier. The same Kazakh woman, with her red boots and a cigarette, untied the long rope fastened to the beam which barred the way through, and one end of the beam rose high in the air to let the lorry pass.

When we were past the last pine Poplavsky said:

"The sky's been unusually blue over the woods all to-day; that means rain."

"It was blue yesterday, too", I replied.

"If two clouds join there'll be very hard rain, that's a sure sign: and now here about three clouds have met head-on, and yet there hasn't been any rain. This my fourth summer on the steppe: two years with a good harvest, two with a bad; and near a wood there was a good harvest every time; but the woodlands have been disturbed... The trend to restore the forested zones is a correct one... nurseries, plantations - and at the same time in every section there are a dozen different bosses with their axes..." He spoke slowly, wearily, without ceasing to turn the wheel. "We plant a thousand pines, and knock down two thousand with our wheels."

Now it was the steppe again, with no bushes or trees; again it was the grey, sandy road between the grasses scorched by the sun, flocks of fine-fleeced sheep scattered over the country, looking like bluish clouds in the distance; the new, slate-roofed houses of the new sovkhozes... Three million hectares of virgin soil have been ploughed in the Pavlodar oblast. But there are no wind-break plantations: perennial grasses have been sown - a drop in the ocean. Big crops have been reaped on the virgin lands, but every year these harvests will grow smaller and smaller if woods are not grown and perennial grasses sown.

"They've unburied them", said Poplavsky, enigmatically as usual.

"Unburied what?"

"The yearlings. They were clean covered in sand: not a pine needle poking out anywhere... They cleared the sand from every set with their hands. Some girls!... Now, am I a good fellow, or aren't I?"

"In what way?"

"Taking you to see that family?"

I praised both Poplavsky and Tat'yana Pavlovna's family, and half jokingly advised Vasya not to bring his bride from the forest belt to the steppe. Poplavsky, not in the least surprised at my being so well informed, sighed and admitted that his young woman was extremely stubborn, and that he would probably have to go and live in the woods all the same.

Note

(1) 62 puds = 1 metric ton.

THE NEWSPAPERS OF AZERBAYDZHAN

The following brief report is based on an examination of the two chief organs of the press of the Azerbaydzhan SSR, the Russian language newspaper BAKINSKIY RABOCHIY, and the Azerbaydzhani language newspaper KOMMUNIST, during the period from 1st April to 29th June 1958. Both these newspapers are published daily except for Sundays and official holidays.

The report has been compiled by C.G. Simpson, Reader in Turkish in the University of Durham and author of THE TURKISH LANGUAGE OF SOVIET AZERBAIJAN (London, 1957), and will be of special interest to readers now that the Azerbaydzhan SSR is being included in the scope of CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW.

Both the newspapers selected for examination are official organs of the Communist Party and they have their counterparts in the republics of Central Asia and in Kazakhstan. It is probable that in these republics also the Russian and vernacular Party organs stand in the same relation to each other as in Azerbaydzhan.

. . . .

Layout

Both newspapers consist of four pages of the same size as those used for the Moscow PRAVDA and IZVESTIYA and closely resemble them in format and type of information.

Page One was normally devoted to the main items of all-Union or Azerbaydzhan home news, foreign news and leading articles; when occasion demanded, one topic was made dominant - such as, for example, the major policy speeches by Khrushchev, the USSR declarations of friendship with the United Arab Republic or Albania, the birthday of Lenin or the May Day celebrations.

Page Two dealt with similar topics, but there was more subsidiary Azerbaydzhan news, and not infrequently, special articles on agriculture, industry and the arts.

Page Three was less formal. Official declarations tended to be absent unless they were continuations from a preceding page. There were more articles by specialists on international and home affairs, local politics, local agriculture and industry, social matters, literature, music, drama and other arts.

Page Four was normally devoted to shorter items of home and foreign news (largely Tass reports), special features about international and

Azerbaydzhan affairs, obituaries, cartoons, articles on sport, music and literature, and advertisements.

Photographs were to be found on all pages.

Contents

(1) No further reference is necessary here to those all-Union matters which receive full treatment in all the major newspapers of the USSR although they occupy a large and prominent part - perhaps a fifth or sixth - of the total space. Such matters included reports on visiting notabilities (the King of Nepal, President Nasser), the proceedings of the Union Supreme Soviet and Council of Ministers, the anniversary of Marx and Lenin.

(2) Leading articles occurred on three days out of four. The main subject was communist politics; and politics overflowed abundantly in articles more specifically dealing with industry and agriculture. Only one article in each paper was devoted to external affairs - that on Soviet-Arab relations occasioned by President Nasser's visit. For the most part both papers followed the normal political trends to be found in other Soviet newspapers; they discussed the Party, the education of Party cadres, youth, peace and the like. A local Azerbaydzhani flavour could be noticed throughout, with Azerbaydzhan republic personalities, factories and kolkhozes receiving mention.

Apart from politics the leading articles reflected the current interest in cotton-growing and stock-raising, and in the chemical and oil industries; in the celebration of the jubilee of the Azerbaydzhan State Theatre, and in such varied matters as the medical services, cinema building, spas, summer sports, the third Soviet sputnik and the lamentable state of the press circulation.

The tone of the leading articles was one of criticism and exhortation. The topics in each paper differed, but the same type of topic occurred in both; perhaps KOMMUNIST paid more attention to agriculture and BAKINSKIY RABOCHIY devoted relatively more space to industry - but this was a natural reflection on the interests of the two language speaking communities.

(3) Both papers contained much 'official' Azerbaydzhan news, such as the speeches, reports and decrees made in the Azerbaydzhan SSR Supreme Soviet, Presidium, Council of Ministers or Central Committee of the Azerbaydzhan Communist Party. It is here that the student of Azerbaydzhan affairs will find the planning measures in both general and detailed terms and where he can study the success or failure in farm or factory.

(4) Agricultural matters, as may be expected, occupied a considerable space in both papers, and articles and reports of all types provided a wealth of material for study. These varied from official reports of the

sowing, cultivation and harvesting measures (for which statistics by rayon were given at frequent intervals), to short statements of factual information, special reports by journalists on the spot, signed articles by leading kolkhoz or rayon officials, and the accounts by the newspaper 'inspecting brigades' on what they observed in the field.

The newspapers reflected the very great attention now being given to cotton cultivation. Nevertheless, all types of agriculture from cereals, livestock and fruit to tobacco, potatoes and mulberry leaves were dealt with.

Much attention was paid to the political aspects of agriculture - to socialist competition, the MTS and mechanization: less prominent were informative and scientific articles on agriculture.

The tone throughout was largely, though not entirely, one of criticism. The delays in cultivation and irrigation, the misuse of machinery, the bureaucracy were pilloried in word and cartoon.

(5) As regards industry, articles were predominantly concerned with oil and the chemical industry based on oil. Both political and scientific aspects were dealt with in detail in the newspapers, and long and informative articles by specialists on such topics as synthetic fibres, polymer resins and plastics, synthetic rubber and geological surveys lay alongside trade union reports, discussion of building projects and the use of automation.

(6) In politics considerable attention was paid to official reports of both all-Union and Azerbaydzhan political bodies. Local party and trade union matters were dealt with at length, and there were frequent special articles on any subject with a political aspect. Examples of the latter included the thirty-eighth anniversary of the establishment of the republic, the duties of railway workers, the economic and political education of kolkhoz and factory workers and the need for greater press circulation.

Special articles dealing with aspects of foreign affairs were also numerous. These varied from commentaries on the work of UNO and articles on nuclear weapons, to accounts of the meetings of foreign Communist Parties, descriptions of life in Bulgaria, Albania, the United Arab Republic and Kenya and the ten years of Soviet-Finnish friendship.

Factual information about life in Western Europe and North America was, as in the other Soviet newspapers, almost entirely lacking. The newspaper reader in Azerbaydzhan was made aware, it is true, by means of photographs, of the Aldermaston march, the unemployed in Alabama or the "man-handling of students" in Nicosia: he learnt little more. The Tass reports, given almost every day, were world-wide in coverage, but dealt almost exclusively with political matters, and were similar to or identical with the reports given in the rest of the Soviet Press. There was also little factual information about other parts of the USSR if the relative

Azerbaydzhan SSR
To Batumi
To Makhach-Kala
To Erevan
To Erevan
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48
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Tbilisi
GEORGIAN SSR
Belokany
Zakataly
Kakhi
DAGESTAN ASSR
Akhty
Sholtar
Khudat
Khachmas
Kusary
Krasnaya Sloboda
Kuba
Kukheti
Akstafa
Kazakh
Tauz
Nukha
Vartashen
Konakhkend
Divichi
Kyzyl-Burun
Kura
Samukh
Kutkashen
AZERBAYDZHAN SSR
Dzharat
Shamkhor
Safaraliyev
Mingechaur
Lagich
Ally-Agach
Bashkend
Kirovabad
Khanlar
Khaldan
Ismailly
Shemakha
Nasosnyy
Sumgait
Kasum-Ismailovo
Yevlakh
Agdash
Geokchay
Lyaki
Akhsu
Sumgait-Chay
Sabunchi
Mashtagi
Buzovny
Kedabek
Adzhikend
Naftalan
Dashkesan
Udzhary
Marazy
Guyuzdek
Khurdalan
Baladzhary
Artem Ostrov
Shaumiyanovsk
Chiragidzor
Barda
Kyurdamir
Surakhany
Zhiloy
Madagis
Terter
Puta
BAKU
Martuni
Mardakert
Zardob
Kubaly
Kel'badzhar
NAGORNO-KARABAKH A.O.
Agdzhabedy
Kazi-Magomed
Duvannyy
Sabirabad
ARMENIAN SSR
Dzhermuk
Agdam
Ali-Bayramly
Alyaty
Imishly
Saatly
Stepanakert
Zhdanovsk
Karadomly
Karachala
Byandovan
Shusha
Martuni
Norashen
Karyagino
Sal'yany
Goris
Oz. Ak-Chala
Pusian
Gadrut
Pushkino
Bank
Shakhbuz
Dzhebrail
Garadiz
NAKHICHEVAN ASSR
Kubatly
Neftechala
Nakhichevan'
Astrakhan-Bazar
Abrakunis
Kafan
Masally
Dzhul'fa
Megri
Yardymly
Kirovsk
Port Il'icha
Ordubad
Lerik
Lenkaran'
I R A N
Astara
State frontiers.
Union Republic frontiers.
Autonomous oblast' frontiers.
Railways.
25 0 25 50 75
J.P.-1958.

size of Azerbaydzhan and the USSR are borne in mind; and a striking absence of news from other Turkish speaking republics.

Cartoons played only a minor rôle as features of commentary on internal and external news. In matters of the agriculture of the republic they held up to ridicule the idle or inefficient bureaucrat; in foreign affairs their main target was the USA, usually in the form of a brutalised soldier, intent on dominating the helpless Middle East countries.

(7) Social matters and the arts as a whole received considerable attention. The large and ample treatment of music, the theatre and the film reflected the popular interest in and the importance attached to these cultural activities. Criticism was at a high level.

In literature perhaps the most interesting features were the special articles in both papers on Fuzuli and Saadi (on the occasion of their anniversaries) and the treatment of historico-political books in reviews. One review, in KOMMUNIST, criticised the faults of omission in a recent history of Azerbaydzhan literature in not dealing sufficiently with the writers of southern Azerbaydzhan; another, on the history of the republic during the years 1921-25, reprimanded the author for incorrectly evaluating the rôle of the Hummet organisation.

Little mention was made of religion or militant atheism, although BAKINSKIY RABOCHIY reprinted in translation an article by a Ukranian ex-priest, and KOMMUNIST called for stronger educational measures against the "Islamic religious survivals" which, it seems, are still encountered even among the youth of the republic.

Conclusion

The two newspapers were very evenly balanced as regards contents. The seemingly greater emphasis that KOMMUNIST paid to agriculture was a natural consequence of the fact that the Azerbaydzhani-speaking people are relatively more important in the countryside. It might have been thought that the papers, catering as they do for two language communities, would reveal differing interests; such was not the case.

To the Western student these papers are of interest, not only in the way in which they can reveal the great development that is taking place in agriculture and industry in the republic, but also for the light they cast on the cultural achievements of a people which was, forty years ago, nine-tenths illiterate.

THE PROGRESS OF THE KARA-KUM CANAL, 1957-58

The background to the Kara-Kum canal project in Turkmenistan and the initial stages of its construction were fully dealt with in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol. II, No. 3, pp. 255-62. Further details of its progress were given in Vol. V, No. 3, pp. 277-8. Now that the first section of the canal, from Bassaga on the Amu-Dar'ya to Mary on the Murgab, is almost completed and work is about to start on the second section from Mary to Tedzhen, it seems appropriate to review the progress so far achieved.

. . . .

The initial problem confronting the constructors of the Kara-Kum canal was the difficulty in determining its exact course; but the natural requirements of the lands in that part of the desert finally suggested what route it should follow. Cotton seems to have been the chief factor in the planning of the course of the canal: every year the cotton-growers of the Mary and Ashkhabad oblasts suffered grave losses through the shortage of water for irrigation, and the situation in the important cotton-growing oases in the deltas of the Murgab and Tedzhen was particularly unsatisfactory. In the lower reaches of those rivers the amount of water gradually decreases until the branches constituting their deltas vanish into the sands.

It was originally intended that work on the first stage of the project should start in 1947. In fact it must have started some years later as by May 1954 only 100km. of the first section had been completed. (1) By the beginning of 1957 the waters of the Amu-Dar'ya filled the canal up to a point 187km. from its starting point on that river (2), and by October 1957 a large sector (Pionernyy kanal) running from Lake Chaksak towards Mary was ready to be put into operation. A year later water flowed along 237km. (3), and by the middle of October 1958 it reached the Murgab oasis. (4)

By the end of 1957 various difficulties had arisen; one of them being the problem of dealing with water plants. Though at many points between the Chaksak and Sredniye lakes the bed of the canal was the required size and the level of water in the Kelif lakes was sufficient to produce a flow of 40 cubic metres of water per second through the canal, it was found that hardly half that amount reached the canal owing to the great quantity of water plants in the lakes. As none of the steps taken by the constructors produced the desired result, the help of scientists was invited; but it is not said how the problem was finally solved. At the same time the Sredniye lakes were responsible for another difficulty as the water of the canal did not flow through them fast enough owing to the low water level. It was calculated that over 40m. cubic metres of water were needed to achieve the

desired level, but as in fact this rose only by two centimetres per day, a delay of about three months in filling the canal resulted. The question was solved by building a hydro-knot (gidrouzel) on Lake Chaksak, and the intake of water from the Amu-Dar'ya increased by over 10 cubic metres per second so that as much as 50 cubic metres per second flowed through the canal past the village of Nichka situated in the heart of the desert.

After the difficulties presented by Kelif Uzboy lakes had been solved, their presence proved a definite advantage to the operating of the canal. The water of the Amu-Dar'ya is very turbid owing to the great amount of sand, clay and silt which the river carries from the Pamirs. It has been calculated that a cubic metre of water contains four kilogrammes of sand and that this amount doubles when the snows are melting in the mountains. This is why the southern shore of the Aral Sea is advancing so fast into the sea and the area of the delta of the Amu-Dar'ya keeps rapidly growing. But the water of the Kara-Kum canal west of the lakes is remarkably pure and clear, for the lakes act as a kind of filter. It has been estimated that they will act as such for not more than 50 years and that they will gradually be filled up with the Amu-Dar'ya deposits. The so-called Potapov trap (shchity) has therefore been constructed at the mouth of the canal, in order to prevent the particles of sand from entering it.

The lakes were not the only difficulty confronting the constructors. One hundred kilometres to the west of Nichka, near Zakhmet railway station, the course of the canal was crossed by the Kel'tebeden gorge whose capacity approximated 7m. cubic metres. It became essential to fill up the gorge before the water of the canal could be directed towards Zakhmet; this work was in progress in September 1958.

A somewhat similar problem had to be dealt with in the course of the previous year by the group working from the direction of Mary. A large fissure (dzhar) lay across the bed of the canal and every spring a very considerable quantity of rain-water gathered in it. In order that it might not interfere with the working of the canal, a syphon (dyuker) was constructed, that is, a reinforced concrete device through which up to 200 cubic metres of water per second could flow under the bed of the canal to the opposite part of the fissure.

Maintaining the canal in good working order is a difficult task as a section of 150 kilometres runs through the desert regions of the oblast of Mary, and at many places areas of shifting sands adjoin the canal. The leskhoz (forestry department) of Mary is responsible for the maintenance of its banks, in connection with which it is expected to spend about 2m. rubles in the course of 1958 (5). The plan includes the construction of mechanical protective devices (mekhanicheskiye zashchity) covering an area of 295ha., as well as the planting of young trees and bushes (300 ha.) and trees especially adapted to desert conditions (1,000 ha.). The same plan has been adopted for the areas of shifting sands near Zakhmet railway

station and the Kizylcha-Baba well.

A remarkable phenomenon is the appearance of life in the desert along the canal (6). This is not only due to the deliberate action on the part of the authorities to colonize those regions: wild geese and ducks, gulls and herons have appeared in large numbers on the lakes, and various kinds of Amu-Dar'ya fish are now found as far as 200km. up the canal.

New villages have sprung up along the canal. The town of Karamet-Niyaz, which a few years ago was not on the map, now flourishes in the desert as a canal port; the village of Nichka is so new it is not yet on any map. The ample supply of water for irrigation has enabled the kolkhozes to expand their fields; this will be particularly important to the Mary oblast which is producing high-quality cotton. New sovkhozes will be set up along the canal, each producing as much cotton as the whole of the Mary oblast used to yield before the building of the canal. It is now becoming possible to develop sheep-breeding as the animals no longer depend on the scanty wells scattered over the desert, while the expansion of the irrigation system provides more food for them.

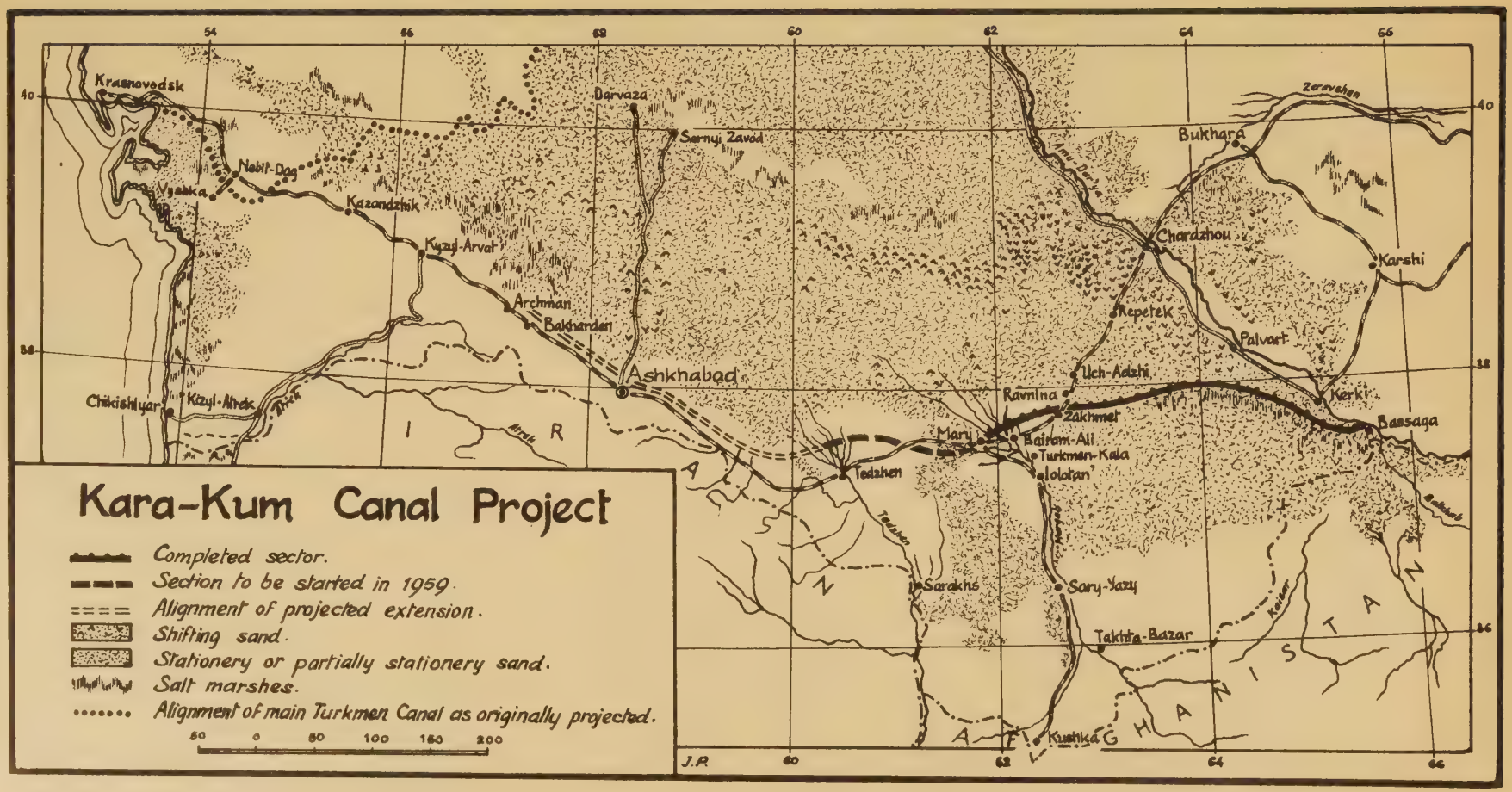
With the completion of the canal as far as the Murgab oasis the first section of the project is almost finished. In 1959 the construction of the second section, connecting the Murgab with the Tedzhen river will begin. It will be 140km. long, and in addition reservoirs will be built to regulate the flow of water in winter to prevent the winter rainfall flowing to waste. The cost of the total enterprise is expected to reach more than one and a half milliard rubles. The completion of the second sector will allow the irrigation of 196,000 ha. of land in the oblasts of Mary and Ashkhabad, and the development of cattle-breeding as 5m. ha. of land for grazing will come into use. New sovkhozes will be set up: twelve cotton-growing, four for grape cultivation, and two cattle-breeding.

Notes

(1) See "The Kara-Kum Canal Project", CAR, Vol.II, No.3.
(2) CAR, Vol.V, No.3, p.277
(3) TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 1.1.58.
(4) Ibid, 17.10.58.
(5) Ibid, 23.3.58.
(6) CAR, Vol.II, No.3, pp.260-2.

Source

TURKMENSKAYA ISKRA, 1957-58.


Kara-Kum Canal Project
Completed sector.
Section to be started in 1959.
Alignment of projected extension.
Shifting sand.
Stationery or partially stationery sand.
Salt marshes.
Alignment of main Turkmen Canal as originally projected.
50 0 50 100 150 200
Krasnovodsk
Vyaska
Nebit-Dag
Kazandzhik
Kuzyl-Arvat
Darvaza
Sernyi Zavod
Archman
Bakharden
Ashkhabad
Chikishlyar
Kizyl-Atrek
Atrek
I R A N
Tedzhen
Sarakhs
Mary
Bairam-Ali
Turkmen-Kala
Ilolotan'
Ravnina
Uch-Adzhi
Zakhmet
Repetek
Palvart
Chardzhou
Bukhara
Zeravshan
Karshi
Kerki
Bassaga
Sary-Yazy
Takhta-Bazar
Kushka
A F G H A N I S T A N
J.P.
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BOOK ANALYSES

THE UZBEK SSR. Ed. N.L.Korzhenevskyy. Published by the State Geographical Publishing House, Moscow, 1956. 470 pp.

This book was produced by the Geographical Faculty of the Central Asian State University: it is a composite work, and the names of the many contributors are given in a foreword. The maps are comparatively easy to read, and the photographs are rather sharper than is often the case in Soviet publications. There is no index; but there is a list (pp.459-63), with local and Latin names, of flora mentioned in the text, and a bibliography (pp.464-9). The book is divided into three main parts: 1. A description of the natural conditions and resources of Uzbekistan (pp.9-144); 2. An account of its population and economy (pp.145-253); 3. A separate account of each of the oblasts and of the Kara-Kalpak ASSR (pp.254-458).

The introduction (pp.5-8) briefly describes the geographical position of Uzbekistan between the two great rivers, with the Aral Sea to the north-west and Afghanistan to the south, and its physical composition and administrative partition. It is the "main cotton base" of the USSR, for which it produces two-thirds of the total, and for cotton production holds the second place in the world. Other important products are silk, karakul fleeces, and preserved fruits; and the economy fits into the "division of labour" of the Union as a whole. Then follow some remarks on the great development of Uzbek agriculture (in the widest sense), industry, and "culture" since the Revolution.

Part 1 begins by tracing the history of the geographical exploration (pp.9-18) of Uzbekistan from the time of Alexander the Great (Arrian and Q. Curtius are the sources), drawing the conclusion that there has been no great change in the climate of Central Asia since his time, and that the theory of the continuous desiccation of Central Asia is mistaken. It refers to fragments from Chinese historians, to the Arabs, including Ibn-Batuta, and to Clavijo; and says that the first really dependable geographical data we come upon in modern times are in the chronicle composed in the sixteenth century by Abdulgazi Bagadurkhan, the ruler of Khiva, and in the Babur-nameh. After this the place of importance belongs to Russian explorers and their accounts: the KNIGA BOL'SHOMU CHERTEZKU (composed at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries), which describes the Aral Sea and its environment, and says something about artificial irrigation; the journey of Mikhail Tikhonev and Bukharov in 1613, when they went across the Kara-Kum into Persia; Bekovich-Cherkasskyy (1715); Florio Beneveni, Peter the Great's ambassador to Khiva and Bukhara (1721-25); Gladyshev and Muravin (1740-43); and Filipp

Yefremov (a prisoner at Bukhara from 1774-82)

Systematic study of Uzbekistan was not begun until the scientific expedition of Col. Berg in 1825 to explore the Ustyurt. This was followed by G.S. Karelin's to the Caspian Sea (1832-36); Butenev's to Bukhara, the Kyzyl-Kum and the Zeravshan Valley (1841-42); the naturalist Baziner's description of the Khiva Oasis (1843); and Lieut. A.I. Butakov's complete exploration and mapping of the Aral Sea (1848-49).

After the occupation of Tashkent (1865) and Khiva (1873) exploration was considerably easier, and the names of many explorers and scientists are given, including Barbot de Marny, V.A. Obruchev, N.A. Zarudnyy, and P.P. Semenov-Tyan-Shanskyy, whose TURKESTANSKYY KRAY was published in 1913. It reads as though the list includes every reputable authority on Uzbekistan. Scientific institutions arose, on a small scale in Tsarist times, culminating in the setting up, by Lenin's decree in 1920, of the State (now the Central Asian) University in Tashkent, with its many faculties, and of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences there in 1934. There follows some account of the scientific expeditions carried out, and the subjects studied, in Soviet times.

Next come sections on the physical structure (pp.18-28) and the nature of the surface of the ground (pp.28-51), the former being a description of the processes which have taken place since pre-Cambrian times, and the latter a detailed physical description of the various areas of the republic as they are to-day, viz: the south-west Kyzyl-Kum (divided into three regions: northern, central, and south-western); the Amu-Dar'ya delta; the Ustyurt plateau; the Tashkent-Golodnaya Step' depression; the Fergana Valley; the Sanzar-Nurata depression; the Zeravshan depression (this last section is 10 pages long and includes the Kashka-Dar'ya and Surkhan-Dar'ya depressions). Next come forty-odd pages (pp.51-95) devoted to the climate and the seasonal growth of vegetation, beginning with the factors which govern the climate (a continental one) - solar radiation, atmospheric circulation and so on, the climatic differences in the four seasons of the year, and a table of the average first blossoming of various flora in nine selected places; and continuing with a study of the water, so unevenly distributed, from the plains (70 per cent of the territory), where the water-courses are "newcomers" (prishliye) and are continually being lost through irrigation, infiltration, and evaporation, to the hills, where they are innumerable. This section contains detailed analyses of the river-system, the lakes, and the subterranean waters. The following section is divided into two, the first (pp.95-101) a classification of the various soils found in Uzbekistan, with a glance at the work of S.S. Nestruyev and I.P. Gerasimov, and the second (pp.102-8) a short description of the composition and qualities of the soils, unirrigated (bogarniye) and irrigated, in the agricultural areas. The next section (pp.108-27) deals with the vegetation, which is characterized by its clearly defined zonality (poyasnost') varying with its height above sea-level; and we read how K.Z. Zakirov has quite recently suggested that only four zones should be distinguished and that they should be called by the local names (from below upwards): chul', adyr, tau,

yaylau; and E.P. Korovin distinguished sixteen types of vegetation which he groups under four heads. There follows (pp.128-34) a brief description of the fauna, from the rodents (marmots, etc.) and snakes of the desert to the Siberian goat of the western Tyan'-Shan'. This, however, is a general account for the whole of Uzbekistan, and it is followed (pp.134-44) by separate descriptions (physical conformation, flora, and fauna) for ten separate areas: 1. The Ustyurt; 2. The Amu-Dar'ya delta; 3. The Kyzyl-Kum; 4. The Tashkent-Golodnaya Step' depression; 5. The Fergana Valley; 6. The Sanzar-Nurata depression; 7. The Zeravshan depression; 8. The Kashka-Dar'ya depression; 9. The Surkhan-Dar'ya depression; 10. The highlands. (The data about the last are almost entirely climatical and meteorological.)

Part 2 of the book starts with twelve pages (pp.145-56) headed "Population and Culture", and deals with the condition of the people under the emirate of Bukhara and the khanates of Kokand and Khiva, and tells how, after the union (prisoyedineniye) with Russia, although feudal relationships were not destroyed, capitalism brought changes in the economy of Uzbekistan (not yet defined or so named), which led to the increase of a working-class (both native and immigrant) and the growth of democratic and revolutionary ideas, with the strikes and demonstrations they produced in 1905-7 and before and during the First World War. The Revolution is briefly mentioned, the Civil War and the defeat of the Basmachi movement internal dissidence and foreign intervention; then the development of industry, agriculture and "culture", with enormous help from the peoples of the RSFSR; the allotment of irrigated land; the founding of Tashkent State University in 1920; the razmezhivaniye in 1924; the land and water reforms begun in 1925; the liquidation of feudalism, and the increase of education of every sort. There follows a section, with a table, on the numbers and distribution of the population; and one on the "thick network of schools" and the large number of tekhnikums, higher educational institutions (VUZ), theatres, clubs, cinemas and other cultural establishments.

The section on industry (pp.156-95), after some general remarks, with figures and tables, on how industry has grown enormously from its rudimentary, 'home industry' or handicraft form of pre-Revolutionary times, is divided into four: I. Heavy industry, described under the heads (a) the Oil fuel industry; (b) Electrical energy; (c) Metallurgy; (d) Metal-working and machine-construction, this head being subdivided into (1) agricultural machinery; (2) cotton-cleaning machinery; (3) textile machinery; (4) food-industry machinery (milk-churns, canning apparatus, etc.); (5) machinery for servicing the coal, oil, and gas industries; (6) chemical machinery (made at the Sredazkhimmash factory at Chirchik); (7) electro-technical machinery - to produce small hydro-turbines, electric cables, etc.; (8) hoisting machinery - cranes, etc., made chiefly at the Tashkent Pod"emnik factory; (9) earth-work machinery - excavators, bull-dozers, graders, etc., for building roads and canals; (10) transport

machinery - repairs and production of spare parts for automobiles, railway engines, etc., (e) Chemical industry; the expansion of cotton-growing has led to an enormously increased demand for artificial manure, and in 1940 the electro-chemical combine at Chirchik started work, producing nitrogenous fertilizer; it is the biggest works of its sort in the Soviet Union. About a page follows on the production and use of artificial fertilizers; (f) Building-materials industry: before the Revolution nearly all building-material was imported from Russia, although Uzbekistan possesses resources sufficient for the majority of its needs. This industry was in 1940, 27 times as great as in pre-Revolutionary times, and many of its products (cement, piping, window-glass, etc.) are exported into other parts of the Union.

II. Light industry - cotton, paper, silk-weaving, etc. Instead of the 210 cotton-cleaning works of pre-Revolutionary times, for instance, semi-home industries, working seasonally, there are now 62 big mechanized plants, and some of their raw cotton is sent to be worked up there by Kirgizia, Kazakhstan and Tadzhikistan. (There are photographs of the Andizhan cotton-cleaning works No. 3, and of the Fergana textile combine.) Much information is given about the production of textiles and clothing.

III. The food-industry. Before the Revolution the most highly developed branch of this was production of cotton-seed oil which , however, used only part of the seed available, the rest being burnt as fuel or fed to stock; now there are over 200 undertakings, dealing with meat, vegetable oil, milk, butter and cheese, preserved fruits, spirits, wines, fish, milling, tobacco, bakery, confectionery, etc.

IV. Cooperative industry. The tradition of cooperative home industry in the making of, for instance, carpets and pottery is a very ancient one in Uzbekistan; but before the Revolution this could be done only on a small scale, and the means of production were very primitive. Since the Revolution these and other home-industries have received support from the State; the artisans have been grouped in artels, and these have been the basis of fairly big mechanized industries.

The section on agriculture (pp.195-245) begins with a twenty-four-page general review (with tables, and a diagram of the kompleks of the cotton-industry) of the subject, with particular emphasis on resources of water, and on the amount of land suitable for cultivation, irrigated or not, and the percentages of the total area of land worked by kolkhozes, sovkhozes, etc., and is then subdivided into (a) irrigation (there is a map of the irrigation-network and irrigated land) - the antiquity of irrigation in Uzbekistan (the Uzbek proverb is quoted: "Where the water ends the land ends") - before the Revolution there was only one mechanically-equipped system, that of the Golodnaya Step' - the wastefulness of irrigation by manual methods - at the time of the Civil War and the Basmachi movement the system was neglected and partially destroyed - the restoration (1924-28) was accomplished by the masses of the peasantry (dekhkanstvo) with help from the State - Lyagan Canal

(32km. long) was built in March 1939, in 17 days, and the Great Fergana Canal was begun in the summer of the same year. The account of the building of canals and reservoirs is continued to the end of 1955, and the need explained for the development of irrigation on an even greater scale to keep pace with the sharp rise in all branches of agriculture; (b) cotton-growing: an account is given of the methods and distribution (with a map) of the industry; (c) market-gardening and viticulture; (d) stock-breeding: an account of the different sorts of stock bred in each climatic zone, and the methods of feeding and pasturing them. In the areas of irrigation-agriculture, for instance, there is very little pasture or hay-making: the stock are often sent during the summer to mountain pastures, perhaps 200-300km. away. The fodder chiefly used is lucerne, "the queen of grasses", a nitrogen-collecting plant which for this reason is much used in crop rotation immediately before the planting of cotton. Much use is made also of maize, which in the irrigation areas can be harvested twice in the year. There are some remarks on the breeding of karakul sheep, on the derivation of the word, and on the names for the different colours of karakul fleeces. Cattle also are discussed, and the breeding of horses (a very ancient pursuit in Central Asia), of which the basic breed is said to be the karabayr; (f) silk: an account of the development since the Revolution of an industry from primitive conditions, backed, nevertheless, by generations of experience. Nine pages (pp.245-53) on transport describe the chief roads, and the railways (with the dates when they began to be used); there is a map of these, and tables of the loads of the most important goods carried into and out of Uzbekistan in 1955 (also expressed as percentages of similar loads for 1950). It is interesting that coal, raw petroleum and petroleum products stand at the head of both tables.

Part 3 (pp.254-457) deals individually with the following oblasts: Tashkent (pp.254-86); the oblasts of the Fergana Valley (pp.286-305), one of the most densely populated areas in the Union; Fergana (pp.306-19); Andizhan (pp.319-30); Namangan (pp.330-39); Samarkand (pp.339-60); Bukhara (the biggest in the republic - 126,900 square kilometres) (pp.360-81); Kashka-Dar'ya (pp.381-402); Surkhan-Dar'ya (pp.402-18); Khorezm (pp.418-37); and the Kara-Kalpak ASSR (pp.437-58). These accounts are each based, for the most part, on three sections: economy, industry, and transport, which may be preceded by a larger or shorter section on natural conditions, and followed by one on internal differences and/or towns. A map of each oblast is given.

The account of the "internal differences" of the Tashkent oblast, subdivided here into the Chirchik-Angren Valley, the Golodnaya and Dal'verzinsk steppes, and the highlands of the Akhan-Garan, Bostandyk, and Parkent rayons, is particularly interesting - the description, for instance, (pp.278-80) of what Tashkent was like before the prisoyedineniye of Central Asia, and the changes that occurred when it became the headquarters of the Governor-General of Turkestan, and that have been taking place in Soviet

times - and so, of course, is that of the enormously fertile Fergana Valley, almost entirely surrounded by snow-mountains, parts of which belong also to Tadzhikistan and Kirgizia. The brief account of Karakalpakia (an ASSR since 1932 and a part of Uzbekistan since 1936) is worth reading; situated as it is on the lower reaches of the Amu-Dar'ya and at the meeting-place of the Kara-Kum and Kyzyl-Kum. It is said to be particularly rich in water-fowl. The usual contrast is made between the backward, feudal, pre-Revolutionary Karakalpakia and the present republic with its highly-developed Socialist agriculture, its eighteen MTS, its industry closely linked to its agricultural needs, and its great fish-canning combine at Muynak, on one of the mouths of the Amu-Dar'ya.

New Ashkhabad thermo-electric power-station

The first unit of the Ashkhabad thermo-electric power-station was completed in October and by the 3rd November had already produced its first million kilowatt-hours of electricity. The work was begun in the second half of 1956. TI. 4th November 1958

NEWS DIGEST

The following items are taken from newspapers and periodicals received during the period 1st October - 31st December 1958.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND TERRITORIAL CHANGES

Administrative changes

Kirgizia

N.P. Gordeyev removed from his post of Chairman of the Council of National Economy and appointed First Vice-Chairman of the Council.

V.N. Churkin appointed Chairman of the Council of National Economy.
SK. 27th November 1958.

V.F. Stepkin removed from his post of First Vice-Chairman of the Council of Ministers.

G.S. Demyanchuk appointed a Vice-Chairman of the Council of Ministers.
SK. 8th December 1958.

Turkmenistan

I.A. Dorokhov and K.A. Vasil'yev removed from their posts of Vice-Chairman of the Council of Ministers. TI. 4th October 1958.

Territorial Changes

Tadzhikistan

By decree of 30th September 1958:

(1) The village soviets of Shakhristan, Nafaroch, Novobad, Yangi-Kurgan and Kholdar-Kipchak (Shakhristan rayon) to be included in the Ura-Tyube rayon.

(2) The village soviets of Ganchi and Yakhtan (Ura-Tyube rayon) to be included in the Shakhristan rayon.

(3) The administrative centre of the Shakhristan rayon to be transferred to the village of Ganchi and the Shakhristan rayon to be renamed the Ganchi rayon.

KT. 1st October 1958

Kirgizia

By decree of 6th October 1958 the Voroshilov rayon, Frunze oblast, has been renamed the Alamedin rayon and its centre, the village of Voroshilovskoye, has been renamed Alamedin. VVS. 23rd October 1958.

By decree of 29th October 1958 the following rayons have been amalgamated: Dzhalal-Abad oblast: The Dzhangi-Dzhol and Karavan rayons into a unified Dzhangi-Dzhol rayon with its centre in the village of Karavan.

Issyk-Kul oblast: The Dzhety-Oguz and Pokrovka rayons into a unified Dzhety-Ogus rayon with its centre in the village of Pokrovka.

The Przheval'sk and Novo-Voznesenovka rayons into a single Karakol rayon, with its centre in the village of Teploklyuchenka.

Osh oblast: The Alayskiy and Gul'cha rayons into a unified Alayskiy rayon, with its centre in the village of Gul'cha.

The Uzgen and Mirza-Aki rayons into a unified Uzgen rayon with its centre in the town of Uzgen, the Kara-Kochkor rural soviet and the territory of the Komsomol kolkhoz, Kan-Davan rural Soviet, to be transferred from this rayon into the Sovetskiy rayon.

Frunze oblast: The Keminskiy and Bystrovka rayons into a unified Keminskiy rayon with its centre in the settlement of Bystrovka.

The Kirovskoye and Pokrovka rayons into a unified Kirovskoye rayon with its centre in the village of Kirovskoye.

The Talas and Budennyy rayons into a unified Talas rayon with its centre in the town of Talas.

By the same decree the following rayons have been dissolved.

Tyan'-Shan oblast: The Kulanak rayon, with the inclusion of its territory in the Ak-Talinskiy and Naryn rayons.

Frunze oblast: The Pervomayskiy, Proletarskiy and Sverdlov rayons in the city of Frunze.

The Petrovka rayon, with the inclusion of its territory in the Stalinskoye and Kalininskoye rayons.

Osh oblast: The Yangi-Naukatskiy rayon, with the inclusion of its territory in the Naukat, Aravan and Uch-Korgon rayons.

VVS. 13th November 1958

Kazakhstan

By decree of 30th September 1958 the following territorial changes have been made:

(1) The inhabited points Khankul', Bikey and Zhaman-Kara have been transferred from the jurisdiction of the Chulak-Ankatin village soviet to that of the Aldiyarovskiy village soviet, Terektinskiy rayon, West-Kazakhstan oblast.

(2) The inhabited point Chagan, Novo-Pokrovka rayon, Semipalatinsk oblast, to have the status of workers' settlement.

(3) The inhabited point Komsomol'skiy to be amalgamated with the workers' settlement of Chagan.

(4) The Chagan settlement soviet to be placed under the administrative authority of the Semipalatinsk city soviet.

(5) The inhabited point Borki, Sokolovka rayon, and the inhabited point Doursa in Sovkhoz No. 1, Priishimskiy rayon, North-Kazakhstan oblast, have been placed under the administrative authority of the Petropavlovsk city soviet.

(6) The workers' settlement Ubaredmet, Predgornoye rayon, East-Kazakhstan oblast has been given the status of rural settlement.

(7) As a result of the transfer of the inhabited point Ubaredmet into the jurisdiction of the Ubinskiy rural soviet, Predgornoye rayon, the Ubaradmet settlement soviet has been dissolved.

By decree of 10th November 1958 the rayon centre of the Kazalinsk rayon, Kzyl-Orda oblast has been transferred from the town of Kazalinsk to the settlement of Novo-Kazalinsk.

VVS. 27th November 1958.

CONFERENCES

CAR Vol. VI, No. 3 (pp.426-9) summarized the advance publicity in Central Asia given to the Conference of African and Asian Writers held in Tashkent in October 1958, and gave details of the agenda. A short resume of the Conference itself is given below.

The Conference was opened by N.A.Mukhitdinov, First Secretary of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan, who spoke of the common fight against

colonialism, the leading role to be played in this fight by progressive writers, and affirmed the unity of the USSR with Africa and Asia in this struggle. He also gave the interesting information that during the 40 years of Soviet rule 100,000 works by African and Asian writers had been translated in the USSR, with a total of 50 million copies.

Other speakers from the platform mentioned the spirit of Bandoeng and Cairo and welcomed the delegates to the USSR "where man is the bearer of the real spirit of free creative labour for the benefit of mankind" (N.Tikhonov).

The speeches from the delegates on the first point of the agenda (the development of literature and culture in various countries of Asia and Africa and their role in the struggle for the progress of mankind, national independence, in the struggle against colonialism, for freedom and peace throughout the world) differed in the proportion of their mixture of literary with political but were more or less unanimous on the main themes as set out above.

On the question of the connection of Western culture with that of Africa and Asia opinions were less unanimous. On the one hand Chou Yan (China), treated Western culture and imperialism as one ("a compound of decadence, pornography and barbarism"), while on the other Rasul Gamzetov (USSR, Dagestan) entered a plea for a distinction between the two ("we cannot confuse Drieser with Dulles, Dickens with Montgomery"). Hasan el-Takhir Zaruk (Sudan) said "our task is to select books of Western literature which can be made use of by us and not to allow into our country those books which could harm us. However, not all books written in the West and not all Western films are bad."

The Conference decided that a permanent bureau of the writers of African and Asian countries be set up, consisting of the representatives of Ghana, Indonesia, Cameroons, China, United Arab Republic, USSR, Sudan, Ceylon and Japan (with an Indian member to be appointed by the Literary Academy of India). The centre of the bureau will be Ceylon, with two regional centres in Asia and Africa. The bureau will consider proposals for the setting up of an Afro-Asian publishing house and periodical printed organ, for the establishment of prizes to be awarded for the best Afro-Asian literary work and for the creation of a fund to aid African and Asian writers. The next conference of Afro-Asian writers will be held in Cairo in 1960.

The Conference addressed an appeal to the writers of the world, some passages of which are given below.

"We, the writers of the countries of Africa and Asia, have gathered together... and discussed questions of vital importance for us and for the literature of the whole world... We are united by our conviction that the cause of literature is unbreakably linked with the fates of our peoples, that a genuine flowering of literature can be achieved only in conditions of the freedom, independence and sovereignty of peoples, and that the liquidation

of colonialism and racialism is a necessary condition of the full development of literary creation...

"The further development of these great civilizations of [Asia and Africa] was halted... by the merciless exploitation of our countries, by the slavery which existed in Africa, by colonialism, imperialism and racialism - that most venomous weed in the garden of mankind... These attempts could not, however, destroy our languages and cultures, although they managed to retard and complicate their development...

"We know also that our life is indissolubly linked with the life of our peoples, that their aims are our aims, their battle - our battle, and we will fight together with them against the evils of colonial domination and the threat of atomic war, for peace, unity and friendship between our peoples."

Pravda, Central Asian Press,
October - December 1958

The Fourth Uzbek Writers' Conference took place in Tashkent in October 1958. In his speech to the Conference Bakhram Rakhmanov, First Secretary of the Uzbek Writers' Union, referred to N.S.Khrushchev's article on the connection between literature and art and the life of the people, and claimed that in the last three to four years the activity of Uzbek writers had increased and the ideological and thematic horizons of Uzbek literature had widened. Rakhmanov stressed the importance of the connection between literature and the Party and described the task of Uzbek writers as "to show in their pages the creation of a new world in the very heart of the East, in the centre of the Asian Continent".

S.K. Kamalov, First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan, in his speech, also stressed the importance of the Party connection. He quoted Khrushchev: "He who wishes to be with the people will always be with the Party; he who stands firmly on Party positions will always be with the people." Kamalov also recapitulated the criticisms made by Rakhmanov in the article quoted above and suggested some contemporary themes; the growth of culture in the countryside, the Uzbek intelligentsia, the komsomol, the spiritual growth of the Uzbek woman, survivals of the past (inertia, egoism, burocracy, protocol, the influence of a property-owning ideology).

Kamalov also gives a list of the talents needed by the (ideal) Soviet writer, a list which may have shaken his audience. The talents were: a "perfect" knowledge of "the most advanced theory of our time - Marxism-Leninism", a store of information on the basic achievements of science and engineering, constant study of the great classics of the literature of all peoples, assimilation of folk-lore and constant labour to perfect oneself and one's art. PV. 15th, 16th October 1958

DELEGATIONS

A group of representatives of member-countries of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, including representatives of Afghanistan, Burma, India, Nepal and Japan, visited Uzbekistan, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenistan. They studied the development of industry, agriculture and culture in the three republics.

TI. 3rd October;
KT. 7th October 1958

A group of educationalists from Vietnam arrived in Tadzhikistan on the 21st October. The delegation, which was headed by Nguyen Van Guyen, Vietnamese Minister of Culture, studied schools and other children's institutions and the position of higher education and the training of science teachers in the republic.

KT. 22nd October 1958

A delegation of agricultural workers from the Chinese People's Republic visited Uzbekistan. After a visit to the Samarkand superphosphate mill they presented the workers with a portrait of Mao Tse-tung embroidered on silk.

PV. 23rd October 1958

A delegation of Iraqi Muslim clergy, which had been visiting Central Asia at the invitation of the Spiritual Administration of the Muslims of Central Asia, left Baku for Moscow on the 2nd December. During their visit they had met Muslim religious leaders.

BR. 3rd December 1958

FESTIVALS OF ART AND LITERATURE

Moscow has been holding a series of ten day festivals of the art and literature of the Central Asian republics.

The Kirgiz festival was held in October 1958; it was the second such festival, the first having been held in 1939. The aim was to show the advances made in Kirgizia in the fields of art and literature since the Revolution, when the Kirgiz people had no written language.

The Kirgiz State Theatre of Opera and Ballet performed V.Vlasov's opera TOKTOGUL, based on the life of the famous bard Toktogul Satylganov, an opera by Chaykovskiy, ballets by V. Vlasov and V. Fere, and M. Raukhverger. Plays by T. Abdumomunov, K. Dzhantoshev, R. Shukurbekov and E. Eshmambetov, among others were performed, and performances given of Kirgiz folk-music, symphonic music and national sports and games. Kirgiz prose was discussed in the Writers' Union of the USSR, and an exhibition illustrated the growth of Kirgiz book production from 1925 when three books were published, to 1957 when the

number of books published reached 800.

SK. 14th-26th December 1958

The second Kazakh festival of art and literature opened in Moscow on the 12th December, 22 years after the first. The Kazakh Academy of Drama showed plays by the Kazakh authors G. Musrepov, M. Auezov, S. Mukhanov and A. Tzhibayev. A Kazakh orchestra, the Kazakh Choir, and State Song and Dance Ensemble also appeared. Native operas and ballets, including the ballet BAKCHISARAYSKIY FONTAN by B. Asaf'yev, were also shown. The Alma-Ata film studio showed films and documentaries; and there was a display of 550 paintings, sculptures and drawings by Kazakh artists.

The tremendous growth in publishing was demonstrated in the book section: between 1862 and 1917 only 270 books were published in Kazakh; now the four Kazakh printing houses issue annually hundreds of titles in editions totalling millions of copies. The level of literacy has been raised from two to 100 per cent. The Academy of Sciences contains 40 scientific institutions, employing more than 3,000 scientists and technicians. There are in the republic at present 19 theatres, 11 concert organizations and dozens of special musical institutions.

KP. 22nd July; I. 7th December;
P. 11th December 1958

LITERATURE

IZVESTIYA AN/UZB. SSR, ser. OBSHCHESTVENNYKH NAUK, 1958, No. 4, pp.57-79 contains a bibliographical index of works appearing in 1957 on the archaeology, history, ethnography, philosophy and law of Uzbekistan. The list must also contain works which deal only in part with Uzbekistan, since it contains Bekmakhanov's PRISOYEDINENIYE KAZAKHSTANA K ROSSII (analysed in CAR, Vol. VI, No. 4) for example. There appears, however, to be no doubt that the vast majority of the entries deal mainly or exclusively with Uzbekistan.

When one takes into account the fact that the bibliography refers only to one of the Central Asian republics it becomes an impressive witness of the volume of Soviet research on the area. The list contains 598 items, of which approximately 100 are books and pamphlets, the rest articles. The list of sources contains 38 names of periodicals, of which only 11 were published outside Central Asia and Kazakhstan. Of the books and pamphlets, 10 were published in Moscow, 2 in Leningrad and 10 in Central Asian republics other than Uzbekistan.

From an analysis of pages taken at random it appears that the subject most often treated is History, with approximately equal attention being paid to the Soviet and pre-Soviet eras. The term "history", however, has to be understood fairly widely, as it includes such subjects as the history

of irrigation in Central Asia.

In spite of the fact that some of the articles listed refer only partly to Uzbekistan, this bibliography shows the extent of Soviet research on Uzbekistan (and, by implication, on the other republics of Central Asia, including Kazakhstan), and demonstrates also that by far the greater part of that research is being carried out in Central Asia itself.

An article published in PARTIYNAYA ZHIZN', 1958, No. 19, exposed certain irregularities in the work of the editorial office of the Kirgiz vernacular newspaper KIRGIZISTON KHAKIKATI.

It appears that the editor Gulyamov, his deputy Gafurov and the secretary Khamidov, had been in the habit of paying fees for material for which normally no fees have to be paid, such as Tass reports, articles and letters from central newspapers and periodicals, "translations" of statistical tables and weather forecasts and for articles published over the signatures of kolkhoz workers and Party officials. These "fees" were paid to workers in the editorial office, Gulyamov himself receiving 45,000 rubles in the first three months of 1958 (although the paper appears only three times a week), and he and his two assistants receiving in 1957, 17 per cent of all the money paid in fees by the paper.

Occasionally, in order to divert suspicion, the fees were registered in the name of a relative or nominee of the actual recipient. In some cases also fees were paid to people who were hardly in a position to write for the paper, such as the daughter of the office messenger. To ensure that as much money as possible should be available for such fraudulent distribution, "the aktiv of writers and local correspondents was excluded from the pages of the paper".

Gulyamov has been dismissed, Khamidov, Gafurov and others have been punished, and the money illegally received is to be paid back to the editorial office.

The article ends with the hope that this will "serve as a serious warning to people who are inclined to confuse government money with their own".

A new periodical in Russian and Tadzhik, NARODNOYE KHOZYAYSTVO TADZHIKISTANA (National Economy of Tadzhikistan), is to start publication in 1959. The periodical will deal with questions of management and planning as applicable to the various branches of the economy and will appear six times a year.

KT. 26th October 1958

The publication has been announced in Alma-Ata of a new children's magazine in Kazakh, BALDYRGAN. The magazine comes out monthly, and is intended for children of pre-school ages and for school-children in the junior forms.

KP. 19th October 1958

HOUSING

The peoples of the Soviet Union are being urged to supplement the efforts of the State by building their own houses. This is not regarded as any proof that the State is not doing its duty by its citizens. Rather it is considered that the fact that they can afford to build their own houses indicates how high is the standard of living assured by the State. Especially is this the case among kolkhoz workers.

In 1958 in the Chuysk rayon of Kirgizia in the Kirov kolkhoz over 10 families moved into new homes and more than 20 members were building their own homes. In an unspecified number of other kolkhozes almost 150 families moved into new homes and as many more were to move in by the New Year.

In the Kyzyl-Shark kolkhoz, Kara-Suysk rayon, Kirgizia, in the summer of 1958 alone 30 families built homes with the help of the kolkhoz.

In the Kirovskoye rayon of Kirgizia in the past two years more than 300 houses have been built in this way.

SK. 5th, 6th, & 22nd November 1958

During the past four years about 200,000 houses have been built in the kolkhozes and sovkhozes of Kazakhstan. In the period 1959-65 more than 250,000 new houses will be built in the kolkhozes. This means that every day 200 families will move into new quarters.

In many kolkhozes and sovkhozes the installation of running water is being planned.

I. 7th December 1958

Within recent years a new town, the miners' settlement of Inder, has grown up in the steppes of Kazakhstan, in the Gur'yev oblast.

At first the miners lived in dug-outs and mud barracks but now the settlement has "broad streets lined with handsome blocks of flats". All the flats are supplied with electricity and a radio; there are a club, library, shops, canteens, schools and a hospital.

The miners complain, however, that there is a shortage of chairs and crockery in the canteens and that the quality of construction of the new

blocks of flats is poor: "The builders had hardly taken the scaffolding down from houses Nos. 14 and 16 when we sent repair men there".

KP. 1st November 1958

COMMUNICATIONS

Aviation

In preparation for the reception of modern high-performance aeroplanes in general, and of the TU-104A in particular, a new runway has been built on the Alma-Ata airport. Its construction was complicated by marshy ground and rainy weather and the fact that a river had to be enclosed in a ferro-concrete tube. In spite of all this the runway was finished in a third of the time planned.

The TU-104A arrived on its first passenger flight on the route Moscow - Alma-Ata on the 9th of October and left on the 10th, covering the round trip of 7,000 km. in a flying time of nine hours. From the 15th October flights along this route will take place three times a week.

KP. 12th October 1958

Telecommunications

During the Seven-Year Plan great increases are envisaged in the communications, radio and television services of Azerbaydzhan. The network of inter-city cables will be doubled and radio-relay communications increased about six times. The number of television transmitters will increase by 2.6 times, and radio and telephone services will be extended to the country villages.

Trunk calls between towns are to be made automatic. New automatic exchanges are to be built not only in cities and rayon centres but in sovkhozes and kolkhozes. By 1960 all kolkhozes in the republic will be served by telephone.

At present in the republic there are 168,000 radio receivers and 262,000 radio relay stations (radiotranslyatsionnyye tochki). By 1965 the number of receivers will increase to 400,000, and of relay stations to 393,000. There will be an exceptional increase in ultra-short-wave transmission.

Television services reach 400 - 500,000 people at present. A large television centre and several relay stations exist. By 1965 several new transmitters and 40-50 relay stations will be built which will serve all the densely inhabited regions of Azerbaydzhan.

BR. 18th December 1958

Party Changes

It was announced in TI, 16th December 1958, that the First Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Turkmenistan, S.Babayev, and Secretary of the Central Committee, N.Durdyyeva, had been relieved of their posts by the Plenum of the Central Committee for "serious mistakes committed in their work".

An indication of the kind of mistake meant was given in TI of the 21st January 1959, where Sh. Tashliyev, Director of the Institute of History, Archaeology and Ethnography of the Turkmen Academy of Sciences, in a speech before the XVth Congress of the Turkmen Communist Party said that Babayev and Durdyyeva had been guilty of "incorrect treatment of the intelligentsia ... (for example) administration by injunction (administrirovaniye) and intimidation... In such circumstances the creative abilities of the cadres of the intelligentsia could not fully develop".

Durdyyeva was last mentioned in CAR in Vol. III, pp. 155-6: in a speech before the Turkmen Writers' Congress she criticized Turkmen writers for avoiding in their works the themes of survivals of the past and the role of the Russian worker in the founding of Turkmenistan.

First Turkmen architect

In the present academic year the first Turkmen ever to study to become an architect, Amangel'dy Esenov, will defend his thesis in the Moscow Architectural Institute. His thesis is a plan for the building up of the south-eastern region of Ashkhabad. The plan, which covers an area of 800 hectares, contains several self-contained centres, a park of culture and rest, clubs, cinemas and a stadium.

TI. 19th September 1958

THE ECONOMY OF PAKISTAN

The following is an abridged translation of an article entitled "Imperialist Contradictions in Pakistan" by S.A.Kuz'min, which appeared in SOVETSKOYE VOSTOKOVEDENIYE (1958, No. 3). It provides an interesting example of the general Soviet attitude and approach to the study of the Pakistani economy, and to the sort of briefing given to economic specialists visiting that country or studying its problems in Soviet institutions. It should assist Pakistan's economists to understand the real nature of the Soviet approach to her difficulties.

. . . .

Situated at the meeting-place of the Middle East countries and those of South-East Asia, close to the frontiers of the Soviet Union and the Chinese People's Republic, Pakistan occupies an important position in the foreign policy of the USA. The interest of the American monopolies is also drawn to the mineral and raw material resources of Pakistan. American penetration into Pakistan evokes, however, the bitter opposition of British monopolies. The struggle which has started for political and economic influence in Pakistan is in the main a struggle between the two chief capitalist countries - Britain and the USA.

Pakistan was established in 1947 as a result of the partition of British India. Pakistan at that time had scarcely any industries of her own; in the regions which went to make up West Pakistan only a few branches of the extractive industry - oil, coal and chrome - were developed in the colonial period. All oil extraction and processing was the monopoly of the British Attock Oil Company, coal-mining of the Powell-Dufferin Company, and chrome-mining of the British company Baluchistan Chrome Mines Limited. Only a few small collieries and chrome mines were in the hands of national capital, and their products were entirely bought up by British companies. (1)

British capital and, to a certain extent, the Indian capital tied to it at that period (1947), dominated in the sphere of currency circulation. In the first phase after partition Pakistan did not even possess her own bank of issue, and all questions connected with the circulation of money in the

country came under the control of the Reserve Bank of India.

The Pakistan State Bank was not founded until a year after the partition. The total number of commercial banks listed (2) in 1948 amounted to 38.(3) The majority of them were Indian banks or the subsidiaries of great British banks - Lloyd's, Grindlay's, The National Bank of India, The Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China. A similar state of affairs could be observed in insurance. In 1948 there were 76 registered insurance companies, of which eight were Pakistani, 38 British and 19 Indian.(4)

The country's external trade was almost entirely the monopoly of big British firms. Pakistani firms active at this time in the sphere of external trade, in fact fulfilled intermediate functions between the Pakistani commodity producers and the British trade monopolies. By this means the British monopolies held the key positions in the Pakistani economy.

At the present time the position occupied by the British monopolies in Pakistan's economy have somewhat weakened. In the field of industry, on the whole the place occupied by British capital investments has fallen as a result of the growth of a series of enterprises, and branches of industry, such as cement, jute and others, have grown up in which there is practically no British capital. The British monopolies have maintained their control over mining. although here too they have been obliged to make room for national capital. The Petroleum Development of Pakistan Company Limited was founded entirely with Pakistan national capital (5) and is made up of a number of amalgamated British-Pakistani oil companies. Chrome mining is likewise conducted by the amalgamated British-Pakistani company, Pakistan Chrome Mines.(6) But at present national capital still constitutes no threat to the domination of British monopolies in the mining industry. A far greater danger for them lies in the competition of the American oil companies who have secured for themselves some advantageous concessions.

National capital has most noticeably exerted pressure on British capital in the field of credit and insurance. The country's own national banks have grown up and are playing a big role in the economy of Pakistan - The Pakistan State Bank and the private commercial banks such as the Habib Bank, Muslim Bank and others.

[Here the author gives statistics to show the increasing share in the economic life of the country held by these banks (7). - Ed.]

The chief cause of a certain degree of pressure exerted on British monopolies in Pakistan have been firstly the growth of a national bourgeoisie, and secondly the economic penetration of other imperialist powers and in particular the Anglo-American competitive struggle. The growth of Pakistan's national bourgeoisie has influenced the policy of the Pakistan Government. While encouraging foreign capital investments the

Government of Pakistan in the years 1949-51 passed laws which revoked the special privileges of British investors.

[There follows a US Government comment in 1954 on the changed situation. (8) - Ed.]

Besides this the Pakistan Government has cancelled the "special privileges which British investors enjoyed with regard to mining enterprises."(9) This has undeniably had the effect of limiting British capital's chances of competing. It is perfectly obvious that the policy of Pakistan towards British capital has to a large extent been influenced by American military and economic "aid".

Having set themselves the task of actively penetrating and subordinating Pakistan to the strategic plans of the USA in the Near and Middle East, the American monopolies naturally could not limit themselves to capital investments. Apart from that, they met with serious obstacles in the shape of the dominance of British monopolies in the field of private foreign investment and Pakistan's adherence to the sterling area. The USA first of all achieved the political dependence of Pakistan on American imperialism. Precisely for this reason the chief instrument of American penetration into Pakistan has been the programme of so-called "aid". American "aid" also serves the USA as the basic means for ousting Britain from the Pakistan market.

At the end of 1953 and the beginning of 1954, after the signing of the Mutual Security Treaty between the USA and Pakistan, active United States penetration into the country was begun by the allocation of military and economic "aid". By the end of 1956 United States allocations for the economic development of Pakistan amounted, together with aid in foodstuffs, to £464m. or about 69 per cent of all foreign aid received by that country.(10) In the Pakistan Government's economic plans emphasis is laid at present on so-called American "aid".(11) Britain's importance as a foreign creditor must decline as long as she is unable, by reason of her economic situation, to give such wide credit as the USA to the underdeveloped countries. Since its plans for economic and foreign policy depend largely on American "aid", the Pakistan Government is turning in fundamental matters towards the USA.

By making use of economic "aid" as a means of exerting pressure on Pakistan the American monopolies have secured favourable conditions for their activities there. According to the agreement of 26th May 1955 between the Governments of the USA and Pakistan, American private investment approved by the Government of Pakistan is guaranteed by both Governments. American depositors are guaranteed full protection against loss resulting from nationalization and the conversion of their capital into dollars.(12)

A series of other agreements is also directed to the encouragement of American capital in Pakistan. Availing themselves of these the American oil companies have in the last few years been stepping up their activities in the

country.

[Here the author lists some agreements made 1954-1957.(13) - Ed.]

The conditions of the agreements are extremely profitable to the American monopolies. 75 per cent of all expenditure on oil prospecting is borne by the oil company and 25 per cent by the Pakistan Government. In the event of the company's starting the industrial extraction of oil a quarter of the whole output belongs to the Government.(14) The agreement with the Standard Vacuum Oil Company stipulates also that the Company may buy from the Government the latter's share of the oil output.(15)

The USA, striving to secure yet more advantageous terms for her capital investment, has been attempting over a number of years to foist on to Pakistan the so-called "Treaty of Friendship, Trade and Shipping", which would mean that the American monopolies with capital invested in Pakistan would enjoy the same privileges and Government protection as the national companies in their financial and industrial activities. Criticizing the slavery inherent in such an agreement, which threatens the nation's industry with complete suffocation, the newspaper PAKISTAN TIMES (21.1.57) notes that the treaty would be a powerful weapon for the USA in the competitive struggle against Britain and other countries, on which the terms of the treaty do not expatiate. "The treaty", writes the newspaper, "constitutes a threat not only to Pakistan's interests but also to such countries as Britain, which has industrial and commercial interests in Pakistan". The draft of the "Treaty of Friendship, Trade and Shipping" met with sharp opposition from the press and business circles in the country, as a result of which its ratification was postponed indefinitely.

American "aid" to Pakistan has undeniably strengthened to a significant extent the political and economic position of the USA in this country. It would, however, be incorrect to suppose that the American monopolies have succeeded in edging out their British rivals. The positions held by British imperialism in Pakistan are still very strong. An important weapon for Britain in her competitive struggle against the USA is, as usual, the use of the sterling balances and imperial preferences. At the present time a number of industrial undertakings in Pakistan depend entirely on Britain for the supply of spare parts and equipment. British standards are still widely used in industry. "The British still dominate the markets of their one-time colonies largely because those countries use British equipment and the conversion to another kind is expensive", notes the Pakistani newspaper ECONOMIC OBSERVER (August 1957, p. 17).

Britain also uses other means in order to maintain her position in Pakistan, such as the allocation of credits to Pakistan, following the line laid down in inter-governmental agreements, aid under the Colombo Plan, and so on. Thus in 1953 the British Government lent Pakistan

£10m. for the purchase in Britain of a quantity of industrial goods and of equipment for various agricultural development projects in Pakistan. (16) This loan is particularly advantageous to the British as the money has to be spent in Great Britain.

The Colombo Plan was begun in 1951 and was designed to last six years. Great Britain, Australia, Canada and New Zealand all take part. Up to September 1956 Pakistan had been allocated $90.9m. (17) Out of this sum Pakistan had spent $43,700,000. The terms for supplying "aid" and the mechanism of mutual accounts of the countries giving and receiving the aid are as follows: When quotas of "aid" are supplied, counterpart funds are set up in rupees, equal in value to the foodstuffs and industrial goods supplied. The money held in these funds is spent on various "development projects" on the strict understanding that the government of the country supplying the "aid" is in agreement. The Pakistan Government cannot dispose of the money allocated at its own discretion.

The need to open a rupee account on each quota of "aid" supplied from budgetary funds, which the Government of Pakistan is not always in a position to do, and to "come to an agreement" with the government of the country giving the "aid" means that Pakistan is less able to make use of the money she receives. This partly explains why, out of $202m. of "foreign aid" allocated up to the end of 1956, Pakistan was able to spend only about $90m. (18) The PAKISTAN TIMES (4.12.56) noted that "American aid is given for objectives for which there are special agreements, but in those cases where Pakistan, lacking resources of her own, is unable to finance some project or other, American aid is not utilized. According to the terms of the agreement, this aid may not be utilized for the construction of other projects where it is needed".

The terms of "aid" under the Colombo Plan, like the terms of American "aid", facilitate putting pressure on the Government of Pakistan by means of supplying or refusing funds for a specific project. Certain restrictions on the freedom of the countries participating in the Colombo Plan to choose between projects are to be found in the original agreements on the principles of cooperation between the Government of Pakistan and those countries. Thus, in the joint "announcement on the principles of cooperation" the Governments of Pakistan and Canada point out that the conclusion of the agreement on subsidies for any concrete project must take into account "the commercial character of the project mentioned from the point of view of its profitability and its role in the saving of foreign currency for Pakistan". (19) This condition restricts the use of "aid" for the carrying out of projects vitally necessary to Pakistan, but which, over the course of a definite, perhaps prolonged period, yield little profit. All agreements on "aid" provide that the Government of Pakistan shall supply the respective countries with detailed information on how the money received was used, the execution of projects, and so on. It should be mentioned that the conditions for Pakistan's use of the aid given under the Colombo Plan are sometimes less

burdensome than the conditions of American aid, this doubtless for reasons of competition. (20)

The provision of aid under the Colombo Plan is on the whole analogous to the provision of American aid. The main objectives of foreign aid are agriculture, sources of energy and communications, while a definite part of the money is set aside for the training of Pakistani technical cadres. (21) The amounts to be allocated for a number of the more important projects are determined first of all by their military and strategic significance. As the Pakistan journal ECONOMIC OBSERVER (August 1957,p.17) states: "A significant part of the aid, which is taken as economic aid, plays a vitally important role in the defence arrangements of the USA and, indeed, the whole programme of foreign aid up to the present time has been in the main military". It is in this light that we must regard the construction of aerodromes, roadsand railways, the equipment of ports and so on. Allocations under the foreign aid programme are also aimed at creating conditions for the exploitation of the country as a market, a source of strategic materials and a sphere for capital investment. Amongst the principal factors at the present time hindering the imperialist exploitation of Pakistan the American guide-book to overseas investors mentions: the limited reserves of useful minerals already prospected for, the lack of transport, of electricity and of skilled labour. (22)

The imperialist struggle between Britain and the USA in Pakistan manifests itself chiefly in the struggle for influence on the economic life of the country and its plans for economic development, for control of its raw material and mineral resources.

At the present time, however, American "aid" surpasses "aid" under the Colombo Plan. For this reason Britain, even with the help of those countries which have entered the British Commonwealth, can only with great difficulty maintain her position in Pakistan.

The competitive struggle between Britain and the USA has even been carried into the Colombo Plan. The USA is striving to seize control over the use of money supplied under the Colombo Plan and to subordinate building operations financed partially at the expense of Colombo Plan aid to the overall military, strategic and economic plans of the USA with regard to Pakistan. One of the methods used to this end by the United States is by taking part in multilateral agreements on the implementation of those particular projects which are more important for imperialist purposes. Thus she is sharing in the construction of a series of irrigation and power installations and in the reconstruction of the country's railway transport. Indeed, the USA strives to penetrate even into those projects which are being carried out by the Government of Pakistan and the Colombo Plan countries. By investing from time to time, even very limited amounts of money, the American monopolies are

able to influence the tempo and the direction of construction. In this way the USA supplied $250 000 worth of equipment for the construction of the hydroelectric station at Varsak, although the original agreement stated that the construction in Varsak was to be financed by Canada and Australia. Moreover, the USA pledged itself to finance the work on enlarging the productive capacity of cement factories and other projects. The results of American participation in the carrying out of these projects were not long in manifesting themselves. "The fulfilling of some important projects... the construction of fertilizer factories, of extensions to the cement factories Zil-Pak and Maple Leaf (factories financed under the Colombo Plan. - S.K.), of cardboard factories, of a steel-rolling mill in East Pakistan... and of others - has been indefinitely postponed," stated the PAKISTAN TIMES (17.1.57) in 1957. "It is considered that the fate of further industrialization depends in many respects on the results of negotiations being conducted by the Minister of Finance, Sayed Amjad Ali in America... " In other words, the fate of these projects has fallen into the hands of the American monopolies. In this way the Colombo Plan has, in a number of cases, helped the USA to extend her economic and political influence in Pakistan.

By making use of the contradictions between Britain and the USA, the monopolies of other highly developed capitalist states, such as Western Germany, Japan, France, Italy and others, are attempting to penetrate Pakistan's economy. Thus Western German capital is showing an interest in machine construction, chemicals and metallurgy. (23) In Pakistan in 1953 the amalgamated company BEKO-KSB was founded, with the participation of the Pakistani Batala Engineering Company and the Western German firm of KSB. (24) The Western German firm of Krupp-Demag is engaged in prospecting for iron ore deposits in Baluchistan. (25) These investigations are connected with the project for the construction of a metallurgical factory in Multan in accordance with the agreement concluded between the Government of Pakistan and the firm of Krupp. This project was indefinitely postponed under pressure from the USA, which had come to the defence of its monopolies engaged in the export of steel. (26)

The Western German industrialists are endeavouring to secure large orders for the manufacture of equipment for a number of industrial projects in Pakistan. These efforts are accompanied by a fierce competitive struggle between United States monopolies and those of Western European countries.

Japanese capital is attempting to penetrate the field of light industry in Pakistan, in particular the cotton industry (27), where it does not meet competition from British and American capital. Japanese companies have supplied the most modern equipment for many textile undertakings in Pakistan.

The construction in Pakistan of artificial fertilizer factories has awakened the interest of a number of foreign monopolies. The receipt of orders for the construction of these undertakings is accompanied by the intensified rivalry of foreign monopolies. Thus, in November 1956, in connection with

the Pakistan Government's announcement of its intention to build in the country two factories for the manufacture of chemical fertilizers, several Japanese, French, Italian and American chemical companies sent their representatives to Pakistan with the object of studying the possibilities of constructing these factories. At the end of 1957 French and Japanese companies obtained the orders to build these two factories.

The competitive struggle of the imperialist powers in Pakistan sometimes obliges these powers to relax the conditions of their "aid" to Pakistan and also to finance projects which promote the industrial development of the country.

When the imperialist powers strengthen their positions in a country, and especially when the USA does so, the economic and political life of the country come under the threat of dictation and control by foreign monopolies. Such a situation has arisen now in Pakistan. Rejection of a neutral policy and the support of the USA's aggressive plans in the Near and Middle East have made the country not only politically but also economically dependent on American imperialism. Economic construction in Pakistan, depending heavily on the military and strategic plans of the USA and a budgetary allocation for military purposes far in excess of the nation's resources - these are the chief results of American "aid" to Pakistan. (28) "Cooperation" with other imperialist powers is likewise not conducive to a solution of Pakistan's fundamental economic problems.

Only equitable and mutually beneficial trade can help Pakistan to emerge from her severe economic difficulties. In this connection certain circles of Pakistan's national bourgeoisie are calling on the Government not to distinguish between the countries of the Socialist camp and the Western powers. "We must try", writes the journal KARACHI COMMERCE, "not to allow political considerations to limit our choice from amongst those countries which would help us to become economically stronger. We ought not to discriminate between East and West, North and South so long as it is a matter of supplying us with capital goods and machinery. We can trade with the USSR just as we can with the USA and with Czechoslovakia just as with Great Britain." (29) Up to now the ruling circles of Pakistan have not established broad economic contacts with the countries of the socialist camp, although a series of trade agreements has been concluded. The share of the USSR, the socialist countries of Eastern Europe and China in the external trade of Pakistan amounted in 1956 to 5.9 per cent of imports and 3.1 per cent of exports, and in the first nine months of 1957 to 5.3 per cent and 2.6 per cent respectively.

However, the deterioration of Pakistan's external trade and the reduced possibilities of exporting her basic commercial crops - cotton and jute - have brought more sharply to the notice of the ruling circles the

question of rejecting one-sided trade with the imperialist countries, and of broadening her economic and external trade with the world socialist market. This is urgently required by Pakistan's developing economy and for the strengthening of her political and economic independence. Aid without political conditions, and mutually beneficial trade without discrimination is the basis for the new type of international relations now being established between the socialist countries and the underdeveloped countries.

Notes

(1) THE ECONOMY OF PAKISTAN. Mushtaq Ahmad, Karachi, 1950, p.8. INDUSTRY IN PAKISTAN. August 1951, pp.12-13.

(2) "Listed banks" in Pakistan are banks with not less than Rs.500,000 paid capital.

(3) PAKISTAN: ECONOMIC AND COMMERCIAL CONDITIONS, MAY 1950. W. Godfrey. London, 1951, p.8.

(4) Ibid., p.134.

(5) PAKISTAN TRADE. June 1956, p.67.

(6) Ibid., September 1956, p.3.

(7) EKONOMIKA PAKISTANA. S.M. Akhtar. M., 1957, p.275; STATE BANK OF PAKISTAN BULLETIN, September 1957, pp.58-59; THE PAKISTAN TIMES, 13th August 1956.

(8) INVESTMENT IN PAKISTAN: CONDITIONS AND OUTLOOK FOR U.S. INVESTORS. Department of Commerce, Washington, 1954, p.44.

(9) INVESTMENT IN PAKISTAN, see (8) above, p.53.

(10) PAKISTAN TRADE. January 1957, pp.78-79.

(11) According to the original Five-Year Plan for Pakistan's economic development, which was inaugurated in 1956, the sum total of foreign allocations should amount to Rs.4,200m., or over 36 per cent of all capital investments in the plan (Rs.3,800m. as allocations on the "aid" account and Rs.400m. as private foreign investment). It is assumed that a large part of this money will be received from the USA (PAKISTAN TRADE, June 1956, pp.1-4; PAKISTAN 1955-56, Pakistan Publications, Karachi, 1956, p.80).

(12) GUARANTY OF PRIVATE INVESTMENTS: AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND PAKISTAN SIGNED AT WASHINGTON. 26th May 1955. Treaties

and other international acts series, 3269; see also ECONOMIC OBSERVER, February 1957, p.5.

(13) PAKISTAN TRADE, November 1954, pp.11-12, April 1956, p.25, September 1956, p.4; PAKISTAN STANDARD, 11th February 1955; IMROZ, 22nd and 29th December 1956.

(14) PAKISTAN TRADE, November 1954, pp.11-12, April 1956, p.25; IMROZ, 22nd December 1956.

(15) PAKISTAN TRADE, November 1954, p.12.

(16) Ibid., February 1956, p.21.

(17) Except for the above-mentioned loan by Britain to Pakistan to the amount of £28m. (£10,000,000). FOREIGN AID AND ITS UTILIZATION IN PAKISTAN. Ministry of Economic Affairs, Government of Pakistan, Karachi, 1956, pp.6,9; PAKISTAN TRADE, January 1957, pp.78-79.

(18) PAKISTAN TRADE, January 1957, pp.78-79.

(19) FOREIGN AID AND ITS UTILIZATION IN PAKISTAN. (See (17) above), p.89.

(20) Ibid., p.16.

(21) Ibid., Appendix II, pp.102-43.

(22) INVESTMENT IN PAKISTAN. (See (8) above), p.2.

(23) Ibid., p.44.

(24) THE PAKISTAN TIMES, 6th August 1956.

(25) Ibid., 24th November 1956.

(26) IMROZ, 26th August 1956; DAWN, 15th July 1957; THE PAKISTAN TIMES, 1st February 1957.

(27) INVESTMENT IN PAKISTAN. (See (8) above), p.44.

(28) As the American newspaper CHRISTIAN SCIENCE MONITOR 17th August 1957 notes, allocations for military purposes connected with Pakistan's participation in the war blocs SEATO and the Baghdad Pact, "every year swallows up no less than 69 per cent of the Pakistan budget".

(29) KARACHI COMMERCE. (weekly), April 1956; see also THE PAKISTAN TIMES, 20th September 1957.

THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN PERSIA

The following is an abridged translation of an article by M. Yaukacheva, "The Problem of the Emancipation of the Persian Woman in Contemporary Persian Prose", which appeared in KRATKIYE SOOBSHCHENIYA INSTITUTA VOSTOKOVEDENIYA, 1958, No. XXVII, pp. 42-49. In this article the author displays considerable knowledge of her subject, although her estimate of the strength and importance of women's movements is probably exaggerated. These movements have always been upper-class in composition and have never had much vogue among the peasant and working classes.

Women have always exercised great influence on Persian politics and society, although in the latter field the influence has mostly been conservative. It is sometimes argued that since women were - more or less compulsorily - "emancipated", that is to say abandoned the veil to a large extent, their influence on public affairs has grown less: they have lost their atmosphere of mystery; but they have not been able to take any active part in public life, nor is it certain that they are at all anxious to do so.

The article is exceptional in the sense that it pays close attention to contemporary Persian literature, which is usually ignored by Western writers. The quality of this literature is very variable and the writers singled out for Soviet praise are not necessarily the most popular in Persia. One of the most popular writers, Jamalzadeh, is not mentioned at all while most of the praise is reserved for Sadeq Hedayat.

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I. Birth of the Feminist Movement - II. The Influence of Literature on the Emancipation of Women.

I. Birth of the Feminist Movement

The author begins her study of the status of women in Persia at the period of the "bourgeois revolution" of 1905-11. It was at this time, she maintains, that the question of the status of women began to appear as an

acute social problem. In its earlier stages it was "tied up with the growth of bourgeois attitudes and of the national liberation movement".

Yaukacheva also attributes to this period the "first manifestations of a political consciousness amongst Persian women". She gives the three examples which follow:

"In Tehran on the 20th January 1907 there was... a women's meeting at which ten resolutions were adopted. They included the building of schools for girls, the abolition of onerous dowries, and so on." (1)

For her second example she quotes from a later writer: "'Of course, the role of the Persian woman in the 1906-9 revolution was not very noticeable or considerable. Some of them did, none the less, play an active part in it and many a time took up arms in the defence of freedom. Persian women in particular distinguished themselves at the time of the heroic defence of revolutionary Tabriz against the forces of the Shah. A special women's battalion was even formed there, and fought side by side with men. Individual women in the revolutionary forces, disguised in men's clothing, fought frequently in battles and skirmishes. According to witnesses, they showed exceptional courage and devotion to duty.'" (2)

"The American advisor Shuster reported the existence in Tehran at that time of a secret women's organization and of women's clubs." (3)

Women and the Press (1905-11)

Yaukacheva then goes on to mention the Press:

"To that same period belongs the rapid growth of the revolutionary press, which played a big role in awakening the conscience of the Persian woman. It was this selfsame press which was the first to speak up about the need to liberate the Persian woman and draw her into the social life of the country. In this connection a very active newspaper was SUR ISRAFIL (The Trumpet of Israfil), which in its policy and subject-matter recalled the Azerbaydzhani satirical journal MOLLA NASRODDIN. The pages of SUR ISRAFIL were the first to carry a serious discussion of the question of women's rights. There were harsh exposures and the fiercest criticism of forced and early marriages, of despotic parents and husbands, of the veil, polygamy, the clergy, and so on". (4) Another newspaper of the period mentioned as having similar views on these questions is NASIM-E-SHEMAL (Northern Breeze), published by the poet Sa'ed Ashraf Gilani in Rasht.

Yaukacheva particularly stresses the influence of progressive Azerbaydzhani literature on "the development of advanced thought and literature in Persia at the period of the 1905-11 revolution". The journal MOLLA NASRODDIN is singled out as one in which "the question of the

status of women was allotted a position of primary importance".

The feminist movement up to the nineteen-twenties

"After the proclamation of the constitution", Yaukacheva writes, "the feminist movement took on a more organized character. A national women's club was founded in Tehran which a considerable number of women joined, admittedly from the privileged classes. At club meetings various topical questions of current politics would be discussed, and patriotic resolutions would be passed protesting against the interference of foreign powers in the affairs of Persia, and so on." (5)

The author states that many women's newspapers and magazines started publication during this period, beginning with the newspaper DANESH (Knowledge) in 1910, which had a woman editor. (6) In 1919 a women's weekly magazine, ZABAN-E-ZANAN (The Voice of Women), was started in Isfahan, being edited and published by Sadiqah Dowlatabadi, the sister of Yahya Dowlatabadi, the writer. This was followed in 1920 by the Tehran newspaper NAMEH-YE-BANUVAN-E-IRAN (The Persian Women's Newspaper), and by the magazine published by the American girls' school, ALAM-E-NESVAN (The Woman's World).

"These publications", Yaukacheva comments, "were mostly concerned with questions of women's education, children's upbringing, and hygiene. They carried articles and advice on the subjects of housekeeping, cookery, and so on. Questions such as the liberation of the Persian woman, the abolition of the veil and of the harem were still far from being topics of open and broad discussion."(7)

The Women's Patriotic League

The writer then makes mention of the Women's Patriotic League, founded in Tehran during the nineteen-twenties. "At the head of this organisation was Mehr Banu, a pupil of the above-mentioned American girls' school", where "only women from the privileged classes could receive an education". Yaukacheva quotes Mehr Banu's description of the League's activities: "'We devote all our attention to popularizing women's education. Only when the necessary cadres of educated women have been brought into being will it be possible to think of taking further, more energetic steps. I am not thinking of such things as the abolition of the veil, and so on'.(8) Thus", Yaukacheva notes, "the programme of the League never included criticism of the Koran or attacks on the veil, and still less did it encourage the struggle for the complete liberation of the Persian woman."

Influence of the revolutionary movement

"The revolutionary movement which gripped Persia in 1919-21 came under the direct influence of the October Revolution in Russia", Yaukacheva writes.

"The Great October Revolution," she continues, "which brought freedom to the woman of the Russian East, who, like the Persian woman, had no rights, could not fail to influence also the fate of the feminist movement in Persia. If those participating in this movement had up to that time consisted largely of women from the privileged classes, now the more comprehending women workers and peasants began to be involved. The living conditions in the country themselves facilitated this development. Difficult economic conditions, lack of political rights, oppression and coercion on the part of employers, all made working women think of their liberation. A letter written to men by a working woman and published in one of the Tehran newspapers is interesting in this respect. She writes:-

'The unhappy position of the Persian woman, truly deserving of sympathy, leaves you cold. I am certain that if your eyes were suddenly opened and lighted on the horrifying pages of woman's fate, if you could see all those torments, insults and outrages which we suffer at the hands of our masters and husbands, if you could feel the scalding tears we shed, then you would agree to our demands. If you were to see the defenceless, unhappy woman, alone, with nobody to protect her, a woman immured on all sides, you would not be able to endure it for a minute, you would remove the winding-sheets of constraint enshrouding her soul, you would make her free. Enough of keeping woman in humiliation and ignominy!'(9)

It must be said that there were still very few such voices to be heard in the nineteen-twenties. The feminist movement in Persia was basically cultural and educational in character, although the first steps had been taken towards emancipation."

II. The Influence of Literature on the Emancipation of Women

Women and the literature of the nineteen-twenties

In the nineteen-twenties, according to Yaukacheva, the position of Persian women "always evoked an angry protest from progressive elements in Persian society. There can be no doubt", she maintains, "that not one of the Persian poets and writers failed to take up this theme." She says that the best writers often wrote of the ill-treatment of Persian women; they passionately denounced the veil, forced marriages and the prejudices of society and ardently upheld the right of women to a position of equality in the family, to education and to freedom of feeling. As examples of this she gives the names of the poets Iraj Mirza (1874-1926), Abulqasem Lahuti (1887-1957), Mirzade Eshqi (1894-1924), Parvin E'tesami (1904-41), and Malek osh-Shoara Bahar (1886-1951), and of the prose-writers Mortaza Moshfeka Kazemi, Yahya Dowlat abadi, and Abbas Khalili.

Yaukacheva's concluding words on the literature of the nineteen-twenties are: "These writers portray for the most part not the external beauty and

fascination of woman, such as is often found in old Persian literature, but the wealth of her spiritual resources (Mahin, Effat, Jalalat in TEHRAN-E-MAKHUF (Terror-stricken Tehran) and Vasileh-khanom in ENTEQAM). Although they passionately exposed the existing order as being guilty of having condemned woman to a life of suffering, a life without rights, these writers, by virtue of their historically and socially hidebound outlook, were unable to suggest the right way to set about improving the position of women in Persia. They went no further than calling for a recognition of women's rights and her dignity as a human being. Their heroines belonged, as a rule, to the privileged circles of Persian society. Nevertheless, the treatment of the question of women in Persian literature was in advance of its time.

"Among the writings of the nineteen-twenties, one story occupies a place apart. This is THE LABOURER'S HARD LOT by Ahmad Khodadadeh(10), which vividly describes the position of the Persian peasant woman, deprived of her rights and with her hard lot aggravated by the unlimited despotism of landowners and bureaucrats."

The nineteen-thirties

The picture Yaukacheva gives of the nineteen-thirties is in striking contrast.

"The nineteen-thirties were characterized by a consolidation of the dictatorial power of Reza Shah and by superficial bourgeois reforms. Some of these affected women. A law was promulgated in 1935 prohibiting the wearing of the veil. Women began to be admitted to higher educational institutions and to do social work. This last development was an exceedingly positive factor in the life of Persian women, for they were enabled thereby to take their place in the life of society, and they began to take a part in production, without which it would be quite impossible for women to enjoy social rights. But Persian women were still economically dependent on men and had no political rights. The question of giving them equal rights did not even arise. Only a very few representatives of the privileged classes of Persian society were able, moreover, to enjoy the newly granted 'freedoms'. The internal policy of Reza Shah was characterized at that time by an openly reactionary attack against the democratic movement.

"The situation resulting from this policy had a most unfortunate effect on Persian literature. The forces of reaction put a decisive obstacle in the way of democratic literature, which was developing under the influence of bourgeois ideology and ethics.

"It was in these circumstances that a group of writers and poets came to the fore, who plainly accommodated themselves to the tastes of the ruling classes (Mohammed Hejazi, Ali Dashti and others). The woman question, which still remained one of the leitmotifs of Persian literature, lost, however, its earlier acutely social significance and was looked at by these writers

from purely bourgeois and at times reactionary points of view. While completely neglecting the social causes of women's lack of equal rights and failing to point out how her honour and dignity were being trampled on, Mohammad Hejazi and Ali Dashti endeavoured to prove that the main cause of the unhappy position of women was the women themselves and their 'frivolous' behaviour. They gave their heroines only negative characteristics, representing them as the embodiment of low cunning, deceit and lust (Ziba and Parichehr in the novels of the same name by Hejazi; Fetne and Sofya - the heroines of stories by Ali Dashti)."

Sadeq Hedayat

Sadeq Hedayat's writings are described by Yaukacheva more fully than those of any other writers she mentions. "These years, when reaction held sway in literature, saw, however, the debut of the outstanding writer of contemporary Persia - Sadeq Hedayat (1903-51), who continued and developed the progressive traditions of the nineteen-twenties. Coming into literature during the years of widespread decline and decadence, Hedayat could not escape being influenced to a certain extent by idealist trends, which came out especially in his early works. At the same time he was able, by virtue of his constant attention to reality, his unfailing interest in the life and sufferings of simple people and a profound study of his people's way of life, eventually to overcome these influences and become an authentic realist writer.

"The heroes and heroines of Sadeq Hedayat's works are in most cases simple, 'ordinary' people, Persian labourers whose lives are described by the writer with great warmth and sincerity. Hedayat gives a large place in his stories to the miserable lot of Persian women, downtrodden, without rights and sunk in ignorance. Social conventions, lack of rights, the despotic rule of men, the woman's constant fear of finding herself turned out on to the streets, the spiritual loneliness of the family woman - Hedayat broached all these questions. In his stories showing the life and customs of the Persian woman, Hedayat has created a number of realistic figures and has revealed the causes of many of Persia's social evils.

"But the heroines of Sadeq Hedayat are only suffering creatures. They do not fight for their rights. The strongest protest they are capable of is suicide (as in the story ABJI-KHANOM), or crime (CONFESSION). Indeed, for the most part they submit to their fate (THE WOMAN WHO LOST HER HUSBAND). Hedayat could not depict his heroines as actively protesting or opposing, because of the established state of affairs in the country and of his own social opinions. The portrayal of Persian realities is, however, done with great artistry, and is in itself a striking enough proof of the writer's attitude of strong disapproval towards the regime of that time.

"Hedayat's artistic writings are the best examples of Persian prose in the nineteen-forties. Expressive and essentially popular language, superb composition, clear and concrete subject-matter with the inner tension characteristic of him, and lively characterization - these are the basic qualities of Hedayat's stories. Among the Persian writers of the nineteen-thirties Sadeq Hedayat stands out as one with a strong popular appeal."

The Feminist movement in the nineteen-forties and fifties

The nineteen-forties, according to Yaukacheva, saw a great change in the attitude of Persian women. They refused to resign themselves to their position and, particularly during and after the Second World War, threw themselves wholeheartedly into political activities and played a big part in the struggle for democracy, independence, and peace. Leading them in their struggle was the Democratic Organization of the Women of Persia. "From the day of its foundation this organization was active over a large field. Under its leadership hundreds of women took part in mass demonstrations and protests. It did great work preparing for the universal women's congresses, and even more valuable was its work after these congresses. Throughout the country there were conferences of working women, peasant women and housewives, at which all the most urgent and vital problems were the subject of lively discussion.

"After the well-known events in Persian Azerbaydzhan (1945-6), all democratic organizations in Persia began to undergo persecution, and the Democratic Organization of Women was no exception. But, heedless of this persecution and of reactionary wrath, the women of Persia, as indeed the whole Persian people, continued their struggle.

"In September 1947, the Democratic Organization became a member of the International Democratic Federation of Women. Women representing Persia took an active part in the work of the second congress of the IDFW in Budapest in 1948, and at the conference of the women of Asian countries in Peking in 1949.

"In 1949 all democratic organizations, including the organization of the women of Persia, were declared illegal. In 1954 the Democratic Organization of the Women of Persia was obliged to give up membership of the IDFW, although the women of Persia did not call a halt to their struggle."

Women in the literature of the nineteen-forties

In Persian writing of the nineteen-forties Yaukacheva sees "a new stage in the Persian workers' struggle for freedom". This, she says, can be seen in the more realistic nature of such writing, and especially in the way the oppressed labouring masses had become the hero. She makes particular mention, in this connection, of the writers Sadeq Hedayat, Bozorg

Alavi, Ahmad Sadeq, Ehsan Tabari, Beh-Azin and Darya. Many of the works of progressive Persian writers were, she maintains, dedicated to describing the life of Persian women.

One of the new features of the literature of this period was that women were no longer looked on as purely passive objects of sympathy. "Writers began to reflect in their works the Persian woman's growing realization of her position, her protest and struggle against lack of rights, her participation in the national liberation movement and in the struggle for peace. The heroines of these works are simple Persian women of working-class origins: peasant girls, maidservants in the houses of the gentry, labourers' wives, and women from the intelligentsia helping the workers in their struggle for freedom."

Bozorg Alavi

Yaukacheva follows up these general remarks with a consideration of the writer Bozorg Alavi. "In his works", she writes, "he has depicted a number of memorable feminine figures, members, for the most part, of the Persian upper class and intelligentsia. He is interested above all in the position of women in the family and in society and her share in the political life of the country. In describing the position of the society woman, who, behind a veil of bourgeois hypocrisy and sanctimoniousness, is without any rights, humiliated and debased, the author exposes the contradictions peculiar to bourgeois society. Bozorg Alavi shows, at the same time, how the better representatives of this society realize all the burdens of their position and protest against the existing order of things (as in the stories DISGRACE, and THE HAPPY WOMAN). Frequently, indeed, they break with their environment and find the true path in joining the general democratic movement for the improvement of the life of the people (as in the stories THE COMET, LETTERS, HER EYES and others). This writer unmasks the lying duplicity of the bourgeoisie. In the story DISGRACE, the heroine Makhlekeh Khanum tears the mask of hypocrisy from her husband, Dorostkar, the great writer and public figure who speaks 'ardently' on the wireless and in the press in favour of peace, friendship, humanism, the emancipation of women, and so on. In vivid, expressive and realistic language, Alavi shows the outrageous situation of the humiliated heroine in high society, where lying and debauchery hold undisputed sway and woman is seen solely as a source of amusement and pleasure."

Other Writers

Yaukacheva mentions several contemporary writers who show women struggling against unjust social conditions. The inhuman exploitation of servant-girls is dealt with by Beh-Azin in ZIVAR, and THE FRUITS OF UNHAPPINESS (11), by Mehdi Abul Fathi in POVERTY (12), and by Mahdi Okhovvat in THE RED APPLE. (13) THE SUNSET OF RAMADAN by E'temadzadeh (14)

is the story of a worker's young wife who is driven to despair by her hard life and defies religious customs and precepts. Ehsan Tabari's story THE STORM APPROACHES (15) shows a progressive woman intellectual playing her part in the Persian feminist movement.

Special mention is made of AFSANEH AND AFSAR (16), the autobiographical conte by Maryam Firuz, the prominent leader of the feminist movement. In this book the heroine, after a divorce from her husband, is refused legal permission to take charge of her children.

Yaukacheva gives the story ON AN AUTUMN EVENING (17), by Ahmad Sadeq, as a "typical" example from contemporary Persia of a woman engaged in underground revolutionary activity. THE RIOT (18), by Darya, tells of a peasant girl who defends herself against a landowner, thus, "hitting out at the traditional foundations of country life". SACRED UNITY (19), the story by Parviz, is about another simple peasant girl, an intrepid fighter for peace, while Ahmad Sadeq's story, COMRADES (20), portrays more brave and heroic women, fighting for national independence and a better future for their country. The heroines of this story - Homa, Zivar and the others - reflect, according to Yaukacheva, "the exploits of the finest daughters of the Persian people, such women as Parvaneh Shirinli, Alyet Shermini and many others whose names have already become legends amongst the people of Persia".

Conclusion

Yaukacheva concludes that Persian literature of the period under discussion has witnessed "the struggle of old and moribund reactionary ideas about women against those new ideas and concepts which life itself has brought to the fore in Persia. And in this struggle it is democratic literature which is in the vanguard, helping the Persian woman to understand the social nature of her inequality and to fight for her rights and her future."

Notes

(1) See M.S. Ivanov. "Vliyaniye russkoy revolyutsii 1905 g. na iranskuyu revolyutsiyu 1905-1911 gg." UCHENYYE ZAPISKI LGU, 1949, No.1, p.244.

(2) Z.L. Khatsrevin. PERSIANKA, Moscow, 1928, p.39.

(3) W. Morgan Shuster. THE STRANGLING OF PERSIA, London, 1912, pp.183-89.

(4) SUR ESRAFIL, Tehran, 1908, Nos. 22, 25, 28, 30, 31.

(5) See Z.L. Khatsrevin. PERSIANKA, p.39.

(6) See K. Chaykin. KRATKIY OCHERK NOVEYSHEY PERSIDSKOY LITERATURY, Moscow, 1928, p.85.

(7) Ibid., p.86.

(8) Z.L. Khatsrevin. PERSIANKA, pp.40-41.

(9) Ibid., p.43.

(10) Ahmad Ali-khan Khodadadeb. KREST'YANSKAYA DOLYA, Moscow, 1931.

(11) Beh Azin ('Etemadzadeh). PARAKANDEH, Tehran, 1944.

(12) Mahdi Abu Alfathi. Article "Faqr", PAYAM-E-NOW, 1949, Nos.6-7.

(13) Mahdi Okhovvat. Article "Sib-e-Surkh", PAYAM-E-NOW, 1948, Nos. 3-6.

(14) 'Etemadzadeh. Article "Ghorub-e-Ramazan", KABUTAR-E-SOLH, 1952, No.4.

(15) Ehsan-Tabari. Article "Tufan nazdik mishavad", MARDOM-E-ADINEH, 5th October 1948.

(16) Maryam Firuz. AFSANEH VA AFSAR, Tehran, 1945.

(17) Ahmad Sadeq. Article "Dar yak ghorub-e-payyiz", PIK-E-SOLH, 1949, No.2.

(18) Darya. Article "'Asiyan", KABUTAR-E-SOLH, 1952, Nos. 21-22.

(19) Parviz. Article "Payvand-e-Moqaddas", BESUYE AYANDEH, 18th February 1952, No. 549.

(20) Ahmad Sadeq. Article "Rofeqa", KABUTAR-E-SOLH, 1952, Nos.21-22.

THE ETHNOGRAPHY OF SINKIANG AND TIBET

In an article called "The Distribution of National Minorities in the Chinese People's Republic" in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA No. 1 of 1958, S.I. Bruk includes some interesting information on the population of Sinkiang, and also of Tibet which, in accordance with Soviet practice, he accepts as being part of the CPR. It is of some interest to compare the information on Sinkiang with that contained in a previous article of Bruk's analysed in CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW, Vol. IV, No.4, pp.433-7 and with the frequently divergent information provided by G.P. Serdyuchenko in his articles of the peoples and languages of China analysed in CAR, Vol. VI, No. 1, pp.78-81.

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I. Sinkiang - II. Tibet - III. Conclusion

I. SINKIANG

Bruk does not refer in his present article to the findings of Serdyuchenko, but now puts forward some facts more in accordance with the latter's. On the first page of his article he states that the "absence in China over a long period of time of a census of population prevented drawing even the most general picture of the distribution and numerical strength of the national minorities. The situation," he claims, "has decisively altered since the victory of the revolution in China. In connection with the tasks of national construction the people's government of China has carried out an extensive study of the national minorities. In doing this, a special difficulty has been to decide whether a particular group constitutes a separate people or forms part of a larger people." This, Bruk says, is especially important in parts of south-west China.

"The national make-up of China was first established on a sufficiently scientific basis and with a high degree of authenticity in the general census of 1953. In contrast with many bourgeois countries, where census forms contain a question on the mother tongue in place of one on "national consciousness", as a result of which the numerical strength of national minorities is underestimated, in the census forms of the Chinese People's Republic there is a question on nationality. In this way those national groups came to light which had to a considerable extent lost their mother tongue, but had conserved other ethnic peculiarities distinguishing them from the Chinese (for example the Manchus)."

In reporting the findings of the 1953 census Bruk gives the following

figures relating to the population of Sinkiang:

The Altay Family:

Turkic group		Mongol group		Tunguso-Manchu group	
Uygurs	3,640,000	Mongols	1,463,000	Solons	7,000
Uzbeks	14,000	Tung-Hsiang (Dunsyan)	156,000	Evenkis	7,000
Tatars	7,000	T'u (Mongors)	53,000	Manchus	2,419,000
Yu-ku (Sara-uygurs)	4,000	Pao-an	5,000	Sibo	19,000
Kazakhs	509,000	Daurs	44,000	Nanaytsy (Hechzhe)	1,000
Kirgiz	71,000				
		Total	1,721,000	Total	2,453,000
Salars	31,000				
Total	4,276,000				

The Indo-European Family:

Highland Tadzhiks	14,000

In two respects Sinkiang is unlike the rest of China, apart from Tibet and the semi-desert regions of Inner Mongolia, in having compact national minorities in its remote oases, and towns, in its southern part at any rate, where the overwhelming majority of the population is not made up of Chinese and Dungans. Northern Sinkiang, however, is one of the regions where the percentage of Dungans is considerably higher than in China as a whole. Bruk says that "there has been a tendency in the last few years for the representatives of the small peoples (nations) to increase their numbers among town-dwellers, especially in the centres of settlement of the national minorities".

Bruk maintains that the "ethnic peculiarities of any group of peoples may be more clearly established by examining the distribution of the various religions in China. The Chinese themselves are Mahāyāna Buddhists, Taoists and Confucianists". Hīnayāna is the religion of the Chuang-t'ai and Miao-yao groups, Lamaism of Tibetans and Mongols, while Dungans, peoples of the Turkic group, Tadzhiks, Tung-Hsiang and Pao-an are Muslims.

Although Chinese colonization of Yunnan and Kweichow has meant that these provinces are now settled by a two-thirds majority of Chinese, while Inner Mongolia and the north-east, more recently colonized, have as much as 90 per cent Chinese, Sinkiang is alone with Tibet in having less than 10 per cent Chinese.

Dungans

"The Dungans", Bruk continues (p.79), "also belong to the Chinese group and they speak the same language as the Chinese. They are singled out as a separate nationality because of their way of life, their husbandry, and, above all, their religious isolation. The Dungans are Sunni Muslims of the Arzamitic persuasion. They rarely mix with the Chinese in the country districts and usually form independent settlements of their own; in the towns they occupy quarters separate from the Chinese. Bruk outlines three theories of the racial origins of the Dungans, and mentions other ones. He concludes that it is highly probable that the Dungans are a mixed group, this being borne out by the various theories. Sinkiang is given by Bruk as one of the three areas where the Dungans are particularly concentrated, and they are to be found even in the western parts of the region. There, as everywhere, "they live for the most part in towns and the adjacent villages and are market-gardeners, horticulturalists, craftsmen and traders". (See also CAR, Vol. II, No. 3, pp. 246-50.)

Tibeto-Burmese group

Bruk, in SOVETSKAYA ETNOGRAFIYA, No. 2, 1956, (see CAR, Vol. IV, No. 4, p.434) makes mention of some Tibetans living in Sinkiang, but in the present article, where he devotes two-and-a-half pages to the Tibeto-Burmese group, no peoples of this group are given as living in Sinkiang.

Turkic group

Bruk does not deal here with the Turkic peoples living in Sinkiang, referring the reader back to his article in SOV. ET., No. 2, 1956. Nor does he comment on the 1953 census figures, which show 14,000 Uzbeks and 7,000 Tatars in China (he says that these peoples are only to be found in Sinkiang) although they differ markedly from those supplied in his previous article. In this he reported 8,000 Uzbeks and 5,000 Tatars. The Soviet Encyclopaedia article on Sinkiang ("Sinkiang Uygur Autonomous Region", Vol. 39, 1956) also gives 8,000 Uzbeks, but makes no mention of Tatars. Serdyuchenko, in the article already quoted, gave the figure of 13,600 for the Uzbeks and 7,000 for the Tatars, and he wrote with knowledge of the 1953 census figures.

Mongol group

Whereas in his previous article (see CAR, Vol. IV, No. 4, p.436), Bruk

divided the Mongols in Sinkiang into two groups: the Oyrats, subdivided into the three tribal groups of Torgouts, Khoshouts and Ölöts, and the Chakhars, his later article shows a different categorization. The Mongols proper, he says, who among other places in China are to be found in the northern part of Sinkiang, may be divided into the following more important groups: Gorlos, Dzhalayt, Khorchin, Nayman, Tumut, Chakhar, Khuchit, Utszumchin, Torgout, Khoshout, Elyet, etc. There are five dialects used by the Mongols of China: the Eastern, Central, Bargu-Buryat, Western, and Oyrat. There are small numbers of Daurs, according to Bruk, in Sinkiang. These, apparently Mongolized groups of Tungus-Manchus, are located in the region of Tarbagatay (Chuguchak) on the accompanying map. In his previous article Bruk told how the Solons were, at their own request, renamed Daurs by the government of the CPR, and he included both Daurs and Solons in the Tungus-Manchu group. In his present article he offers no explanation for altering this and for placing the Daurs and Solons in separate national groups. Serdyuchenko, in his article (see CAR, Vol. VI, No. 1, p.79), insisted that the Daurs and Solons are separate peoples, blamed the Encyclopaedia for identifying them as one, and said that the Kuomintang wrongly ordered the Daurs to be called Solons. Bruk does not clarify this issue when he comes to deal with the Solons.

The Tung-Hsiangs are mentioned in the Soviet Encyclopaedia as being indigenous inhabitants of Sinkiang, but Serdyuchenko commented (see CAR, Vol. VI, No. 1, p.78) that there are only a few families there. Bruk did not mention them in his previous article (on Sinkiang) and in his present one (on China) locates them elsewhere. They are Muslims, he says, and, like the Daurs, agriculturalists, the Mongols proper being mostly nomads and livestock-breeders.

Tunguso-Manchu group

The Tunguso-Manchu group is represented in Sinkiang by the Manchus and Sibo, who are agricultural peoples of the southern sub-group, and by the Solons, of the northern or Tungus sub-group. Bruk notes that "out of the 2,400,000 people who called themselves Manchus at the time of the 1953 census, only a few in remote villages near Tsitsihar and Kirin, and also in Sinkiang, have preserved features of their national way of life and their language. In all other regions they have been assimilated under the influence of the higher Chinese culture and have lost their original features (including language and script)."

"The Sibo", he continues, "live in the north-western part of Sinkiang, in the valley of the river Ili, near Kuldja; a small number of them are settled in the north-east (i.e. Manchuria), in the lower reaches of the River Nonni. They arrived in Sinkiang as military settlers from the ranks of the famous Manchurian troops in the middle of the eighteenth century, after the break-up of the Dzhungarian khanate. The Sibo have retained

their language, which is close to Manchu."

Bruk states that "the Solons were moved from Transbaykal into Manchuria in 1732," and then describes where they are to be found in the north-east. "They are also to be found", he continues, "in the Ili district of Sinkiang, whither they were moved together with the Daurs in 1764. The Solons were in the ranks of the Manchurian forces. For this reason some of them live where there were Manchurian garrisons, in such towns as Tsitsihar, Hailar, Butkha, Mergyen', Aigun. There are a considerable number of Mongol words in the Solon language."

Tadzhiks

"China's Tadzhiks are of the group of so-called Highland (or Mountain) Tadzhiks. They live in south-western Sinkiang, in the Tashqurghan area and in the valley of the Tiznaf and its tributaries, in remote and almost inaccessible highland terrain. Most of the Tadzhiks are cattle-breeding nomads, but a minority is engaged in hill-farming and is settled. The Sinkiang Tadzhiks, or Sariqoli, are akin to the Vakhanis, Shugnanis and Roshanis, who live in the Pamirs in the frontier region of the Soviet Union and Afghanistan. They speak one of the dialects of the Shugnani language, which belongs to the eastern sub-group of the Iranian group of languages. There is a considerable admixture of Turkic words in their language." Bruk has a footnote here to the effect that in his last article (SOV.ET., No. 2, 1956) he made a mistake in giving the language spoken by the Highland Tadzhiks as the Shugnani dialect of the Tadzhik language.

Other peoples in Sinkiang

Bruk concludes his study of China's national minorities by mentioning several small groups, many of them in Sinkiang. "In Sinkiang, in the inaccessible mountains of the northern slopes of the Karakoram range there are small groups of so-called Kanjuts* which have never been studied. (They are apparently Burusho, the main body of which is settled over the border in Kashmir. Also to be found here are a small number of Kashmiris, Afghans and Gypsies." As has already been pointed out, Bruk makes no mention here of the Tibetans he included in the similar list of small minorities with which he ended his previous article.

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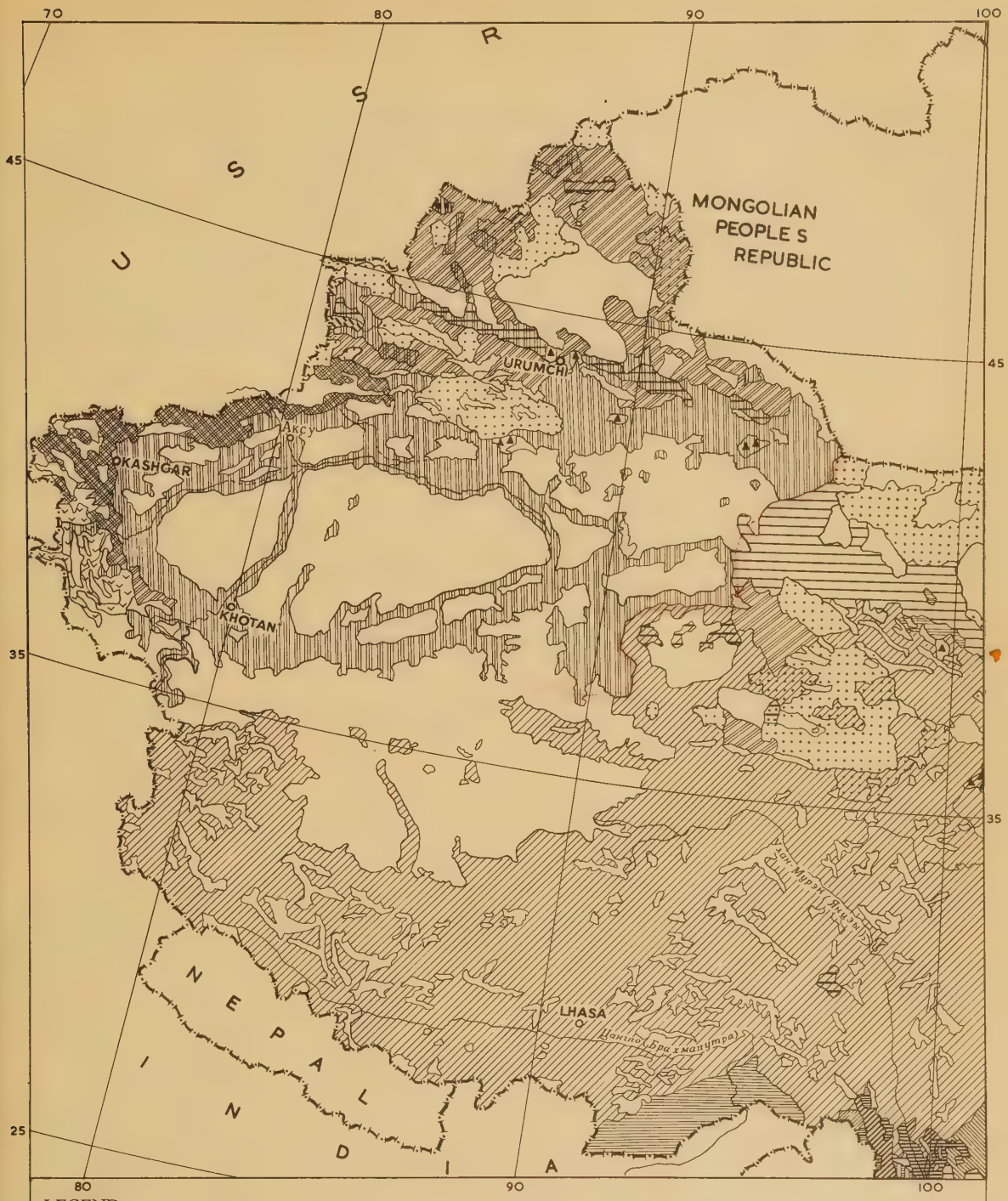
*It is possible that the Kanjuts referred to by Bruk as living in Sinkiang live in fact in that part which is marked as being in Sinkiang on Chinese and Russian maps, but as Indian territory on the Survey of India maps.

Ethnographical map of Sinkiang and Tibet



Reproduced from *Sovetskaya Etnografiya*, 1958, No. 1.
(It will be seen that the frontiers shown do not always correspond with the Survey of India maps.)

In mentioning the Russians in China Bruk says: "A considerable number of Russians used to live in China, in the north-east and in Sinkiang... In Sinkiang, Russian Old Believers began to settle at the end of the nineteenth century in a number of places in the north of the Altay district. There were Russians living also in the towns of Urumchi, Kuldja and Chuguchak. In recent times most of the Russians have been repatriated to the Soviet Union." This is in marked contrast to his 1956 article where he reported "many Russians" as living in Sinkiang and made no mention of their repatriation.

II. TIBET

Bruk gives two peoples only as inhabiting Tibet to any significant extent: the Tibetans and the Lo-yuy people, both members of the Tibetan linguistic sub-group of the Tibeto-Burmese group of peoples. On the map accompanying his article (see p. 88) for which he is also responsible, no Chinese are marked as being in Tibet. This should be taken, however, together with his statement that there are less than 10 per cent Chinese in Tibet, which leaves it possible to conclude that the Chinese there are so thinly distributed, forming no compact groups, that it was impracticable to show them on his map and to discuss their distribution in his article. The 1953 census gives 2,776,000 Tibetans and 50,000 Lo-yuy living within the Chinese borders.

The following is a translation of the section of Bruk's article dealing with the two peoples living in Tibet.

"The main area settled by the peoples of the Tibeto-Burmese group includes Tibet and three provinces of south-western China - Szechwan, Kweichow and Yunnan. There are Tibetans living also in the more northerly provinces of Tsinghai and Kansu. Amongst those of this group living inside China, three linguistic sub-groups may be distinguished.- Tibetan, Ching-po and I-tso.

"The Tibetan sub-group includes, apart from the Tibetans proper, four small peoples - Ch'iang, Nu, Du-lung and Lo-yuy. The peoples of this sub-group occupy the vast territory of the Tibetan upland which stretches 1,300 km. from north to south and 2,000 km. from east to west. This upland is bounded on all sides by the world's highest mountains - the Himalayas, Karakoram and Kunlun. At the edges of the upland the great rivers of Asia have their origin - the Yangtze, Hwang-Ho, Mekong, Brahmaputra and others. The Tibetan upland has a severe climate with heavy frosts and sharp contrasts between day and night temperature. The northern and western parts of the Tibetan upland, where there is a sharp increase in the dryness of the climate, are a highland desert of detritus and conglomerate, almost devoid of life. A large number of Tibetans are

settled outside China, on the southern and western slopes of the Himalayas inside the boundaries of Nepal, and also in Sikkim, Bhutan, Ladakh (1) and Baltistan, which form part of India.

"The Tibetans in Tibet make up the overwhelming majority of the population. Apart from them there are an insignificant number of Chinese (in the towns), some Gurkhas and representatives of certain peoples of the Himalayan group - Nepalese and Indian by origin. In the north-western part of Tibet cattle-breeding Uygur nomads sometimes appear from Sinkiang."

At this point in his article, Bruk gives a description of the distribution of Tibetans outside Tibet.

"The Tibetans have preserved the remnants of a tribal structure. Up to very recent times the main features of a feudal structure were still retained in Tibet. Most Tibetans are mainly engaged in agriculture, which is almost always combined with cattle-breeding.(2) Farming is carried on in southern Tibet in the valleys of the river Tsangpo and its tributaries, where a fairly dense settled population is concentrated. Most of the population lives in villages at an altitude of from 4,500 to 4,800 metres above sea-level. Mountain barley is the chief cereal in Tibet.

"Nomads and semi-nomads account for only a fifth of the entire population. They roam with their herds over small distances, their way of life differing but little from that of the settled population. The cattle-breeders mainly breed yaks, sheep and long-haired goats. Unlike the Mongols, Tibetan cattle-breeders nearly always own land.

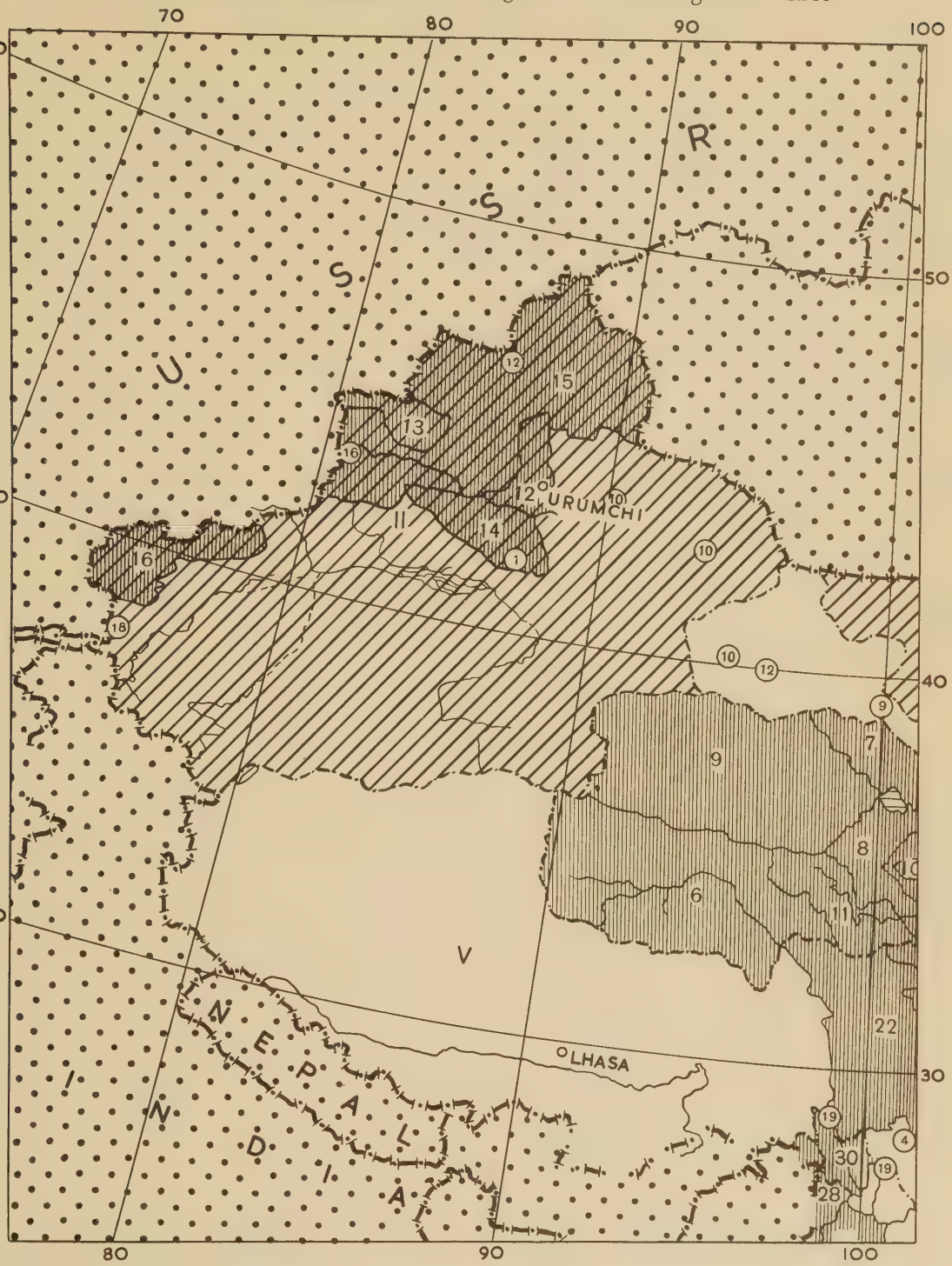
"The Tibetans are lamaists, adhering to that variety of Buddhism which penetrated into Tibet as early as the seventh century A.D. In the seventeenth century the lamaist priesthood acquired all political power. At the present time there are still a number of monasteries in Tibet, while the lama-monks may be counted in tens of thousands.

"The other peoples of the Tibetan sub-group have been little studied. Under the name of Lo-yuy are included several peoples living on both sides of the Sino-Indian border in the vicinity of the bend in the course of the river Brahmaputra, to the south-east of Lhasa. To the Lo-yuy belong the Dafla, Miri, Abor and Mishmi.(3) The Dafla and Miri live inside the bend of the Brahmaputra on both sides of its tributary the Subansiri. The Abor and Mishmi occupy the mountainous region to the north-east of the town of Sadiya, on the left bank of the Brahmaputra. They are all engaged in hill-farming and hunting."

III. CONCLUSION

In the Chinese People's Republic all peoples are assured complete equality.

The National Administrative Regions of Sinkiang and Tibet



LEGEND

A. AUTONOMOUS RAYONS: II - Sinkiang-Uygur; V - Tibetan (a preparatory committee is at work).

B. AUTONOMOUS OKRUGS: 12 - Ch'ang-chi Dungan; 13 - Boro Tala Mongol; 14 - Pa-yin-kuo-leng (? Baingolen) Mongol; 15 - Ili Kazakh; 16 - Kizil-Su Kirgiz.

C. AUTONOMOUS UYEZDS OF NATIONALITIES: 1 - Hui (Dungans); 9 - Yu-ku (Sara-Uygurs); 10 - Kazakhs; 12 - Mongols; 16 - Sibo; 18 - Highland Tadzhiks.

Reproduced from *Sovetskaya Etnografiya*, 1958, No. 1.
(It will be seen that the frontiers shown do not always correspond with the Survey of India maps.)

In accordance with the constitution, all nationalities "are free to use and develop their language and script and to preserve and alter their customs and habits". In the course of economic and cultural construction the government exhibits its concern for the needs of all nationalities, and in the questions of socialist reforms takes full account of the peculiarities of their development.

In all those places where national minorities are territorially concentrated, territorial autonomy is being established and autonomous rayons, okrugs and uyezds are being set up. Their boundaries are drawn with full regard to the historically complicated relations between the national minorities living there and also to local economic conditions. Included in the national autonomous rayons is territory populated by Chinese. This speeds up the liquidation of economic backwardness amongst the small ethnic groups (rod-ov).

In a number of places national minorities are spread in small groups over the whole territory. In that case national volosts are formed inside the uyezds. And if the national minorities are scattered and it is not possible to provide national autonomy, then democratic united self-governing institutions are formed for the various nationalities.(4)

In accordance with these principles there have been set up four autonomous rayons, 30 autonomous okrugs and about 50 autonomous uyezds in places where national minorities are territorially concentrated (according to figures for the end of 1957). (See map of China's national administrative regions on p. 90). Apart from this a preparatory committee has been formed, and in the very near future a Tibetan autonomous rayon will take official shape which will include Tibet proper as well as the Chamdo okrug which once formed part of the liquidated province of Sikang. Thirty of the larger national minorities have their own autonomous formation.

The Chinese people's government is consistently putting into practice a policy of differentiating between the approaches to reforms which are to be carried out amongst national minorities at different stages of social and economic development. Out of the 35.5m. people belonging to the national minorities, socialist reforms (preobrazovaniy) have in the main been concluded amongst 30m. Democratic reforms are at present being carried out in regions with a population of roughly 3m. people. In Tibet the western areas of Szechwan and the north-western and western parts of Yunnan, where these reforms are planned to be carried out at a later date, a number of steps have been taken towards improving the lives of the peoples and raising their cultural level. The Communist Party of China considers that there should be no hurrying in the matter of reforms amongst the national minorities, and that in some cases the period for carrying them out should be prolonged.

Notes

(1) It was noted by a correspondent in a previous issue of CAR (see Vol.V, No.2, p.161) that Russian and Chinese maps often show the north-eastern part of Ladakh as being in Chinese territory. This is borne out by the map accompanying Bruk's article. It would seem, therefore, that when he is talking of Ladakh as Indian territory he means that part of Ladakh which even on Russian and Chinese admission, lies within India. (Trans.)

(2) In many works it is incorrectly stated that the main occupation of the Tibetans is cattle-breeding. For example, the well-known geographer, P. Guru, writes as follows: "The inhabitants of Tibet know no other methods of husbandry apart from nomadic cattle-breeding." (P. Guru, AZIYA, M., 1956, p.44) This mistake is connected with the misconception that small nomadic Tibetan tribes are distributed over a vast territory of highland desert, whereas the main mass of Tibetans inhabit the river valleys. (Author's note.)

(3) These are the names given by Indian authors. (Author's note.)

(4) Such institutions are formed even where national minorities constitute only 10 per cent of the population (and in some cases when they make up even less than 10 per cent but have strongly marked nationalist attitudes). (Author's note.)

BURHAN SHAHIDI

The following biographical details of Burhan Shahidi, formerly Governor of Sinkiang, have been taken with permission from an article by Hans de Weerd in OP DEN UITKIJK, September, 1958.

. . . .

Turkestan is situated between China, Russia and the Indian sub-continent and therein lies its importance. A year before his death Lenin said that the Communist world revolution was bound to succeed because Russia, China and India together contained the majority of the world's population. This is not strictly true, but it indicates the way in which Lenin hoped to gain world power for himself or his successors, and explains why the Red Army reconquered Turkestan, which had regained its independence after the collapse of the Tsarist Empire.

During the reconquest a man called Burhan fled to the Chinese occupied part of Turkestan. He was just 21 but he had two things of value in under-developed Turkestan - a good education and a knowledge of Russian.

Born in 1895 in Aksu in the Semirech'ye, Burhan was a Tatar - a race which took its name from the Mongols but in other respects is purely Turkic. The Tatars live mainly on the lower Volga and in the southern Urals, but scattered groups are to be found over almost the whole of the Russian Empire including Turkestan. The Tatars, having suffered longest under Russian domination, were the first to realize that they had to adapt themselves to meet the Russian pressure. The Russians, in their turn, tried to attract intelligent Tatars into their schools and make them into Russians. Tatars who preferred to receive their education in Turkic schools abroad found themselves on Tsarist police registers.

Burhan received his education in Russia, but shortly after 1920 he found employment in Sinkiang with a trading company in Tarbagatay not far from the Russo-Chinese border. To further his career, however, he had to move to Urumchi, the capital.

The Chinese Governor at Urumchi, Yang Tseng-hsin, was in a difficult position; his government's headquarters were far away, his Turkic subjects disliked Chinese domination and his western neighbours were the Bolsheviks. His policy, a sound one, was not to suppress the local population, not to irritate the Russians and not to give his superiors cause to suspect him of acting too independently.

Burhan procured an introduction to the Governor who saw something in him and employed him as an interpreter. Later he became manager of a

horse-breeding farm and then of an omnibus company. One Chinese source says that he was the Governor's "public relations officer". A German explorer who spent three months in Urumchi in 1927 wrote that Burhan was also considered to be the representative of the Muslims (that is practically the whole aboriginal population of Sinkiang).

In 1928 Governor Yang was assassinated. It is suspected that the Russians plotted the murder but it cannot be proved. Burhan's career was not disturbed by this event as in the same year he accompanied five young men, one of them the son of Yang's successor, Governor Chin Shu-jen, to Germany where they were to be educated. He remained in Germany until the beginning of 1933.

Burhan may have had contacts with the German Communist Party, at that time still strong, but if so nothing is known about them. He escaped the uprisings which broke out in Turkestan in the early 'thirties against both Russian and Chinese domination. He returned, however, to a scene of unrest.

The Governor had been overthrown by a putsch, since proved to have been Russian-inspired. His successor, the pro-Communist General Sheng Shi-tsui, was threatened by the attack of the Muslim rebel general, Ma Chung-ying (The Big Horse), from the neighbouring province of Kansu. It is possible that Ma Chung-ying met Burhan in Germany in 1930; this is not, however, completely certain.

Burhan represented the Governor during the negotiations with Ma Chung-ying. The results are interesting; the Russians, who had given the Governor suspicious strong military aid, made Sinkiang into an unofficial Soviet satellite state. Ma, who had been violently anti-Communist, disappeared into the Soviet Union and in 1937 Burhan was appointed Consul in the Soviet city of Zaysan (Kazakh SSR), where, it is believed, he first made close contact with Communist Russians.

Since the early 'twenties the Russians had been training large numbers of revolutionaries in Turkestan who could later assume power in future Asian Communist republics. The Korean Communists, for example, were trained here. In Sinkiang the Russians had considerable influence, shot their opponents - real and supposed - and, under a secret treaty with Governor Sheng, were the first to exploit the country's rich mineral deposits. This state of affairs lasted until well into the Second World War. Then, however, Governor Sheng, discovering a Communist plot to assassinate him (his brother had recently been assassinated), confessed his dealings with the Russians to Chiang Kai-shek and, in exchange for a new pledge of loyalty to the Kuomintang Government, was maintained in his office. Burhan was recalled from Zaysan and given a gaol sentence of nine years for pro-Communist activities.*

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* It is more likely that he was imprisoned on charges of being pro-fascist and a German agent. (Ed.)

The Russians, however, who needed Sinkiang's minerals for their own war-effort and to finance Mao Tse-tung's Communist Party, and hoped to replace Sheng with a more willing puppet, made violent protests in Chunking (Chiang Kai-shek's temporary capital) and began to inform the Chinese of Sheng's earlier activities. Marshal Chiang Kai-shek, however, stood firm until Henry Wallace, President Roosevelt's envoy and deputy, "advised" the removal of Sheng in order "not to irritate our Russian ally". (For the same reason Sheng maintained that his prisoner was not Burhan but Mr. Chang - a common Chinese name.)

Sheng was superseded in 1943 by Wu Chung-hsin. His aide, General Chang Chih-chung, was a secret Communist. Burhan was released and made Commissar of the Urumchi district and in 1945 became Deputy Governor of Sinkiang, whose northern half was then occupied by Soviet-supported anti-Chinese rebels. When the rebels wished to proclaim an East Turkestan Republic the Russians, fearing the effect of such an example in Soviet Central Asia, intervened and the Sinkiang Government came to an agreement with the rebels. It is not improbable that Burhan took part in these negotiations, but there is nothing to prove it.

In the same year (1945), as a belated concession to Turkic nationalism, Masud Sabri was appointed Governor of Sinkiang, the first Muslim Governor. Masud Sabri resigned in 1949 during a period of rebellions and, on Communist recommendation, was succeeded by Burhan, who was simultaneously appointed State Councillor in Chiang Kai-shek's Government. Kuomintang rule was already drawing to a close on the mainland, but when Mao Tse-tung's troops occupied Sinkiang in autumn 1949 Burhan was retained as Governor.

His main task appears to have been to purge Sinkiang of anti-Communist elements. By New Year's Day 1952 he could announce over Radio Urumchi that this task had been completed; 120,000 "enemies of the people" had been liquidated in three years, out of a population of five million.

In the same year (1952) Burhan was instructed to found a "Chinese Islamic Association". Chinese Buddhist, Protestant and Catholic associations were projected at the same time. In a speech made in this year at the Communist sponsored Peace Congress of Asiatic and Pacific Territories, Burhan predicted a new, happy future for Chinese Muslims under communism. When the Chinese Islamic Association was officially founded in 1953 Burhan Shahidi was unanimously elected president.

Although the Chinese Communist war-time civil constitution held that every non-Chinese people in the Chinese Empire had full rights of secession, the 1954 constitution declared the minority areas (which form 60 per cent of China's territory and are rich in raw materials), an inalienable part of the Chinese People's Republic. Burhan offered no opposition to this change in policy.

Burhan Shahidi was appointed a vice-premier. Under his auspices illustrated propaganda books on the life of Chinese Muslims under communism began to appear, with texts in English, Chinese, Arabic and Malayan. The opportunity for personal contact with foreign Muslims came with the Bandoeng Conference of 1955. Burhan made many contacts there, among others with the pro-fascist former Mufti of Jerusalem, Al Husseini, and with Colonel Nasser. Invitations to visit foreign Muslim countries were received and in 1955 Burhan (who had been replaced as Governor of Sinkiang the year before) visited Cairo. Between 1955 and 1956 Burhan and his subordinates visited every Islamic state and religious leader between Egypt and Pakistan, Syria and Afghanistan, and he became President of the Chinese-Indonesian Friendship Society.

In 1956, on Col. Nasser's recognition of Communist China, Burhan travelled to Cairo again, this time as a diplomat, to conclude a cultural exchange treaty. Egyptian scholars were already lecturing in Chinese universities. During the Suez crisis Burhan and the Communist Muslims gave full support to Egypt in their propaganda.

It is probable, however, that the organization which proved most fit to penetrate into the Arab World was the World Peace Council (with which is closely affiliated the Afro-Asian Peoples' Solidarity Committee). It could be for this reason that Burhan is acting also as an apostle of peace, and in this capacity he visited the Warsaw Peace Committee in June 1958.

BOOK REVIEWS

STRANY BLIZHNEGO I SREDNEGO VOSTOKA (Lands of the Near and Middle East). By Y. Basistov and I. Yanovskiy. Gosizdat, Uzb.SSR, Tashkent, 1958. 316pp. 45 line drawings; 61 two-tone illustrations; 23 maps; appendices.

This is apparently the first book dealing with the borderlands of Soviet Central Asia and published in that same part of the USSR. It seems to be intended particularly for the Soviet Central Asian reader.

The book consists of an introduction of ten pages, and twenty chapters each devoted to a different country in the area covered. There are also five statistical appendices showing, for "the lands of the Near and Middle East",(1) territory, population and capitals; (2) exchange rate bulletin of currency; (3) areas; (4) oil reserves and output and (5) cotton production. There is no index.

In his introduction, Basistov first summarizes the progress made towards freedom and independence in Asia and Africa during the last few years. He then gives a definition of the "Near and Middle East", which is of some interest. The "Near" East includes Egypt, Turkey, Syria, the Lebanon, Israel, Jordan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, the Yemen, the Sudan and also Aden, Oman (Muscat), Trucial Oman, Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrayn and Cyprus, while the "Middle" East means Persia, Afghanistan and Pakistan. In naming the forms of government obtaining in these countries, Basistov gives as his opinion that protectorates are in a position in no way different from that of colonies. He discusses the policies of the states of this region and to what extent they are tied up with Western aims, and considers the importance of the commercial and economic life of the area. Particular stress is laid on the roles of the Baghdad Pact and the Eisenhower doctrine, and this is followed by an appraisal of the policies of the Arab League, the United Arab Republic and the USSR.

The three chapters whose subject-matter comes within the scope of the CENTRAL ASIAN REVIEW are each written by Basistov. There are 7,500 words on Persia, 5,000 words on Afghanistan and about 6,500 words on Pakistan.

Persia

Basistov begins by giving some general facts and figures and by describing the natural conditions of the country. Most of what he has to say on Persia, however, comes under the three heads of "Population",

"Economy" and "Brief Notes on Persia's History and Present Position", particularly the last-named.

The figures he gives for national minorities are more recent than those published in CAR, Vol.IV, No. 4, pp.417-20, and show a rise in all cases except for the Baluchis. He stresses that there are no minority rights. There follows a class analysis and a description of Persia's larger towns. The poor living conditions of the Persian people are dwelt on with special reference to the prevalence of disease, low expectation of life, heavy unemployment and mendicancy. The achievements in the realm of the arts, and the situation of the press, wireless and of popular education are touched on. Most of this chapter, however, is concerned with such matters as the alleged pernicious influence of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and the appalling working conditions for its employees, the political life of Persia in the present century and the absence of political freedom there. A sinister picture is given of Nazi German, British and, latterly, American influence, especial criticism being reserved for the Baghdad "War" Pact. Progress in Persia, Basistov maintains, can only come from peaceful and friendly cooperation with the Soviet Union.

Afghanistan

This chapter is likewise divided into two short sections on general information and natural conditions, and three longer ones on population, economy and "history and present position", the same order being followed also in the chapter on Pakistan (see below). The many national minorities in Afghanistan are mentioned but nothing is said of their being denied national rights. Although there are many illiterates, attributed to the stultifying influence of British colonialists, Basistov paints a glowing picture of a rich cultural life with flourishing university and learned institutes and with Soviet culture a prominent feature. Agriculture and industry are described in some detail, their backwardness being attributed to British colonial rule. The same baneful influence is repeatedly referred to throughout the article, no complaints being preferred against recent Afghan governments. Indeed, Afghan foreign policy is warmly praised, and its claims for Pushtunistan (Pakhtunistan) upheld. Soviet-Afghan cultural and economic links are dealt with at some length, and the conclusion reached that "Soviet-Afghan relations are a shining example of friendship and fruitful cooperation between countries with different socio-political systems".

Pakistan

The chapter on Pakistan mentions that national minorities are completely lacking in autonomous rights, and that the Pathans are particularly malcontent. Tens of thousands in Karachi have no roof over their heads. While some peasants have taken over land from the landowners, the classes are economically far apart in Pakistan, and people starve to death, and die for want of medical help. The cultural and economic life of the country is described by Basistov in

terms far less hopeful than when he was writing of Afghanistan. Pakistan's attitude in the Kashmir problem is attacked as aggressive, and the Muslim league is accused of selling the country's interests to the USA. After describing the roles of the Communist Party in Pakistan and the development of Soviet-Pakistan relations, Basistov concludes by saying that only the goodwill of the Pakistan Government is needed to improve these relations, which would be to the advantage of both countries.

N E W S D I A R Y

AFGHANISTAN, INDIA, PAKISTAN, PERSIA, SINKIANG

The following diary includes items from newspapers and periodicals received during the period October-December 1958 inclusive. In view of the variety of sources from which the information has been collected contradictions may occur; no responsibility can be taken for the accuracy of the information given but the source is quoted for each item.

A list of abbreviations used will be found at the beginning of the REVIEW.

. . . .

AFGHANISTAN

October 5th. Instruments of ratification have been exchanged in connection with the agreement between the Soviet Union and Afghanistan on the regulation of the Soviet-Afghan frontier, which was signed in Moscow on the 18th January 1958. (P. 6.10.58.)

6th. The President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, Voroshilov, visited Afghanistan, 1st-6th October. (P. 7.10.58.)

A new river port, the first big one in Afghanistan, is being built with Soviet aid at Kizil-kala on the River Pyandzh, thirty kilometres above the confluence of the Vaksh with the Amu-Dar'ya. (PV. 30.10.58.)

Agreement and protocol on exchange of goods and payments between Afghanistan and Czechoslovakia has been signed in Kabul. (FET. January 1959)

November 26th. Afghan journalists have left Stalinabad after a four-day visit at the invitation of IZVESTIYA, having previously visited Moscow, Leningrad and Stalingrad. (KT. 27.10.58.)

Kabul bookshops are reported to have sold out in a few days the entire edition of a book, published in the USSR, on the recent visit of the King of Afghanistan to the Soviet Union. (BR. 23.11.58.)

December 16th. Conversations have begun in Kabul between the USSR and Afghanistan on questions of transit. (I. 17.12.58.)

31st. Sardar Mohammed Naim, the Afghan Foreign Minister and Deputy Prime Minister, arrived in Moscow to exchange views with Soviet leaders on relations between the two countries. (P. 1.1.59.)

A group of Soviet specialists is at present examining the left bank of the Amu-Dar'ya in Afghanistan. It is proposed to build hydro-knots and irrigation canals, including some in the region of Kelif. (See also CAR, Vol.VI, No.3, p.360.) (PV. 11.12.58.)

INDIA

October 7th. A branch of the Society for Soviet-Indian cultural links is to be started in Kazakhstan. Kazakh scientists, writers and artists have visited India, and Indian writers have had their works translated into Kazakh. (KP. 7.10.58.)

15th. A delegation of Soviet specialists in the pharmaceutical industry has left Delhi for the Soviet Union, having been in India since August at the Indian Government's invitation. They leave behind a report on the recommended development of the industry in India. (See also CAR, Vol. VI, No. 3, p.361.) (KP. 17.10.58.)

30th. An agreement is signed on arrangements for a shipping service between India and the Black Sea ports of the Soviet Union. (FET. January 1959)

An agreement has been signed in Bucharest between the Indian and Rumanian Governments for the building of one of the two new refineries for Assam oil. (See also CAR, Vol. VI, No. 3, p.361.) (T. 24.10.58.)

The Indian Minister of Mines and Oil, Mr. K. D. Malaviya, has paid a short visit to Moscow, where he was received by Mr. Mikoyan, to report on recent oil finds at Cambay. He says that Great Britain and the USA have given little help to India's oil industry, but that Soviet help has been invaluable. He outlines plans for the future development of India's oil industry. (P. 25.10.58; NT. No.42,1958)

November 1st. A festival of Soviet films opened in Delhi, as part of the commemoration of the 41st anniversary of the October Revolution. (P. 3.11.58.)

3rd. Trade and payments agreements have been signed between India and Eastern Germany. Details of goods given.
(FET. January 1959)

4th. An exhibition of Soviet books has opened in Lahore.
(KP. 11.11.58.)

6th. A big meeting was held in Delhi to celebrate the 41st anniversary of the October Revolution. (P. 7.11.58.)

15th. A protocol on trade between India and Poland in 1959 has been signed in Warsaw. Details of goods given.
(FET. January 1959)

16th. A new five-year trade agreement has been concluded between India and the Soviet Union. Both countries undertake to increase trade with each other to the maximum. The agreement provides for each side extending most-favoured nation treatment to the other, as well as for the establishment of a clearing system under which payments will be made in rupees without conversion into sterling or any other currency. Goods to be exchanged are enumerated. (P. 17.11.58.)

16th. Mr. Nehru announces that Mr. Voroshilov is to visit India early next year. (P. 18.11.58.)

21st. The delegation of prominent Indian lawyers, led by the Minister of Justice, has left for India. They have been in the USSR at the invitation of the High Court. They have been received by Mr. Khrushchev and have also paid a short visit to Poland. (P. 11, 15, 19, 21, 23.11.58.)

The India Press Agency reported from Delhi that Indian M.P.'s expressed approval of the progress and organisation of labour at the site for the Bhilai steel plant, while deploring the slow rate of progress at Rourkela and Durgapur, where steel plants are being built by West German and British firms.
(P. 27.11.58.)

The first of the three blast furnaces was completed at Bhilai at the end of November, and the first boiler of the power-generating plant was fired at the same time. The entire plant is expected to be ready for operation by the end of December 1959. (See also CAR, Vol. VI, No. 1, p.97.)
(FET. January 1959)

Mrs. Lakshmi Menon, Deputy Minister of External Affairs, said India had drawn the attention of the Soviet Government to "certain apparent inaccuracies" in a map published in the Soviet weekly NEW TIMES, and showing certain parts of India as Chinese territory. (See also CAR, Vol. VI, No. 1, p.99.)
(T. 29.11.58.)

December

1st. The fourth conference of the West Bengal division of the Indo-Soviet Society for the Strengthening of Cultural Ties, which opened on 29th November, announced the formation of a special women's section. (SK. 3.12.58.)

12th. At the conclusion of talks which started on 21st November, an agreement is signed between the Soviet Union and India by which the Soviet Union is to give India equipment for the technological institute in Bombay and is to help train her engineers. (P. 13.12.58.)

25th. A delegation of Soviet women, headed by the Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of Uzbekistan, D. Il'khamova, has left Moscow for Delhi at the invitation of the All-India Conference of Women. (P. 26.12.58.)

26th. The Fourth National Conference of the Indo-Soviet Society for the Strengthening of Cultural Ties opens in Bangalore. (P. 27.12.58.)

A delegation of five Russians has begun a four-week tour of tea plantations in Assam, West Bengal and South India.
(T. 13.12.58.)

The Soviet Union has presented an electronic computer of the latest type to the Indian statistical institute in Calcutta.
(I. 20.12.58.)

Quick-ripening cotton seeds from Kara-Kalpak have been sent to India. (PV. 20.12.58.)

A delegation of Indians prominent in the field of culture has been in Moscow since the beginning of December at the invitation of the Soviet Minister of Culture.
(P. 21.12.58.)

The Soviet Union is to supply a large-scale thermal plant fed on lignite or brown coal for South India.
(FET. January 1959)

The Soviet Union is to finance the manufacture of drugs and pharmaceuticals in India to the extent of £6.75 million.
(FET. January 1959)

The first step towards mechanization in Indian iron-ore mines has been taken at Joda, Orissa, where one such mine is now using a ropeway manufactured in East Germany.
(FET. January 1959)

A group of East German experts is preparing a project for cinema and X-ray films in India. (FET. January 1959)

PAKISTAN

October 10th Iskander Mirza, speaking on foreign policy, disassociates himself from those adventurers who demand war with such countries as the Soviet Union, China and the United Arab Republic. (P. 11.10.58.)

According to Karachi Radio, Faiz Akhmed Faiz has just been arrested under the "Law for the Protection of Social Security". He was at the Tashkent conference of African and Asian writers in October. (I. 16.12.58.)

PERSIA

October 1st. The delegation to the USSR of the Persian Majlis has arrived back in Tehran. (See also CAR. Vol.VI, No.4, p.474.)
(P. 3.10.58)

21st. Soviet scientists have left Persia after taking part in the work of a symposium on soil salinity in reclaimed areas which took place in Tehran under the aegis of UNESCO. Soviet-Persian contacts between scientists are to be increased, especially because conditions in parts of Persia are similar to those in Central Asia and Transcaucasia.
(BR. 23.10.58.)

25th. The Persian Minister of Trade has paid a short visit to Moscow. (P. 26.10, 2.11.58.)

31st. Mr. Gromyko has handed a note to the Persian Ambassador in Moscow which protests against the alleged conclusion of a Persian military agreement with the USA and points out that the Persian Government's action constitutes a threat to peace and contravenes the 1927 treaty between the two countries.
(P. 1.11.58.)

A group of specialists in water economy will, on the 1st October, begin a fortnight's preliminary survey of the bed of the River Atrek, where it is proposed to construct a large, new reservoir to be used by both countries. This is in accordance with the Soviet-Persian agreement of 11th August 1957. (See also CAR, Vol.VI, No.1, pp.102, 103.) Work has begun on the preliminary survey for the reservoir at Kizyl-Atrek. (TI. 19.9,7.10.58.)

Senator Jam reports to the Persian Senate in glowing terms on the recent visit of the Persian parliamentary delegation to the Soviet Union. (BR. 22.10.58.)

For the first time a Persian film is being shown in Baku and throughout Azerbaydzhan. (BR. 31.10.58.)

November 9th. The Persian reply to the Soviet note of 31st October is handed to the Soviet Ambassador in Tehran. It refutes Soviet charges in the strongest terms and says the Soviet note is "totally unjustifiable and irrelevant". The Soviet Ambassador, after receiving the reply, is leaving Tehran for Moscow and will be absent for an unspecified period. (T. 10.11.58.)

11th. Persia is represented at the seminar for overseas health organizers which took place in Tashkent from 11th-15th November. (PV. 12.11.58.)

SINKIANG

October 11th. A section of the Lanchow-Sinkiang railway, 1,149 km. in length, has been opened to passenger transport, and Sinkiang has received its first passenger train at its first railway station, Hunlyukhe. Work has begun on the Tyan'-Shan' tunnel, a key point on the railway. (SK. 17.11.58; DRUZHBA, No.45, 1958)

25th. A Chinese delegation, invited to attend the celebration of the 40th anniversary in Alma-Ata of the Lenin Komsomol, has arrived in the town, led by the secretary of the committee of the Komsomol of the Sinkiang-Uygur Autonomous Region and including young workers from the Karamay oil-field and the Friendship railway. (KP. 26.11.58.)

THE SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS OF KAZAKHSTAN, KIRGIZIA, TADZHIKISTAN, UZBEKISTAN, TURKMENISTAN AND AZERBAYDZHAN

100 0 100 200 300 km.

Borders of the U.S.S.R.
Limits of Union Republics.
Capitals of Union Republics.
Railways.
Canals.
Canals under construction or projected.
Sands.
Main arterial road with pass.

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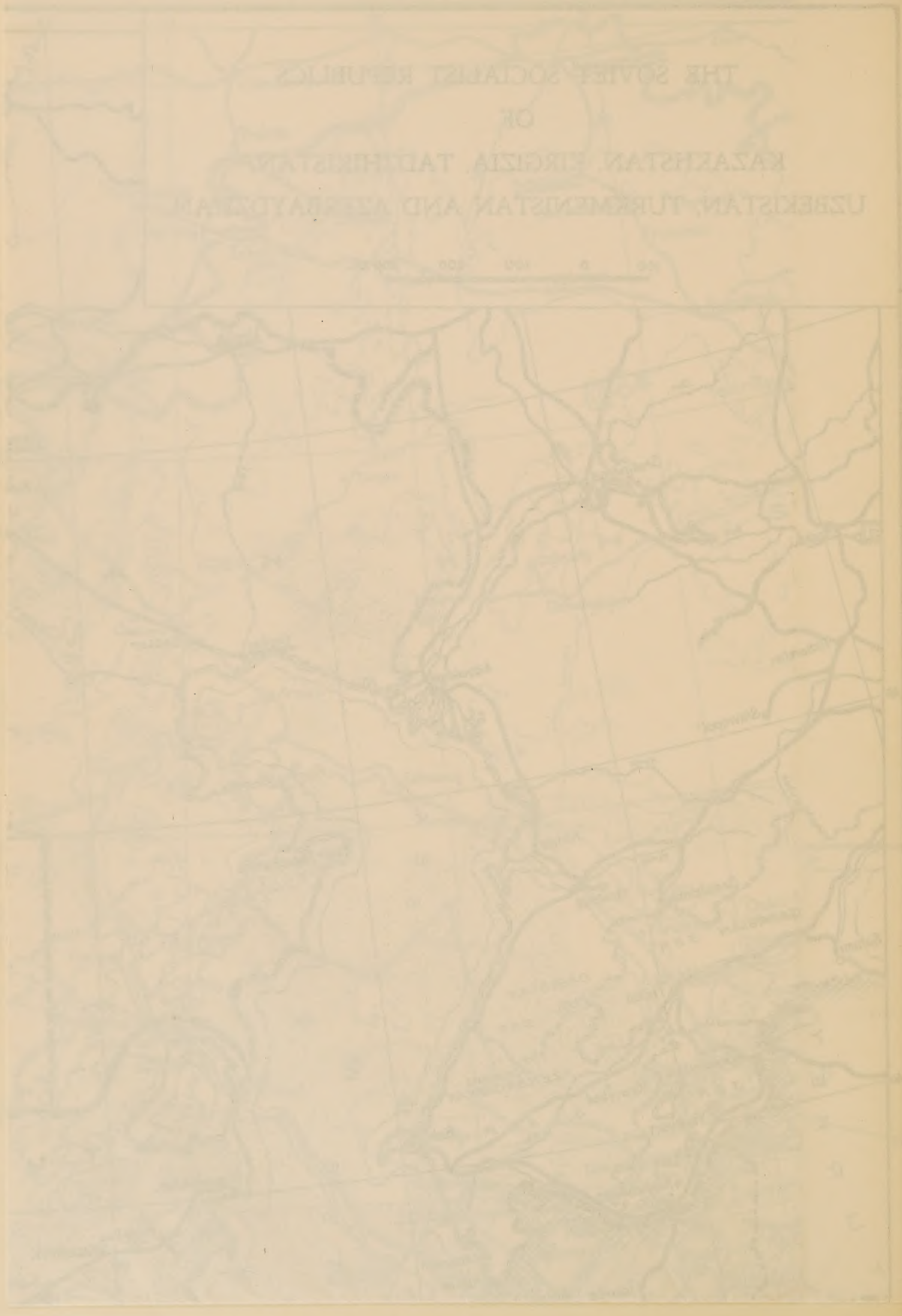

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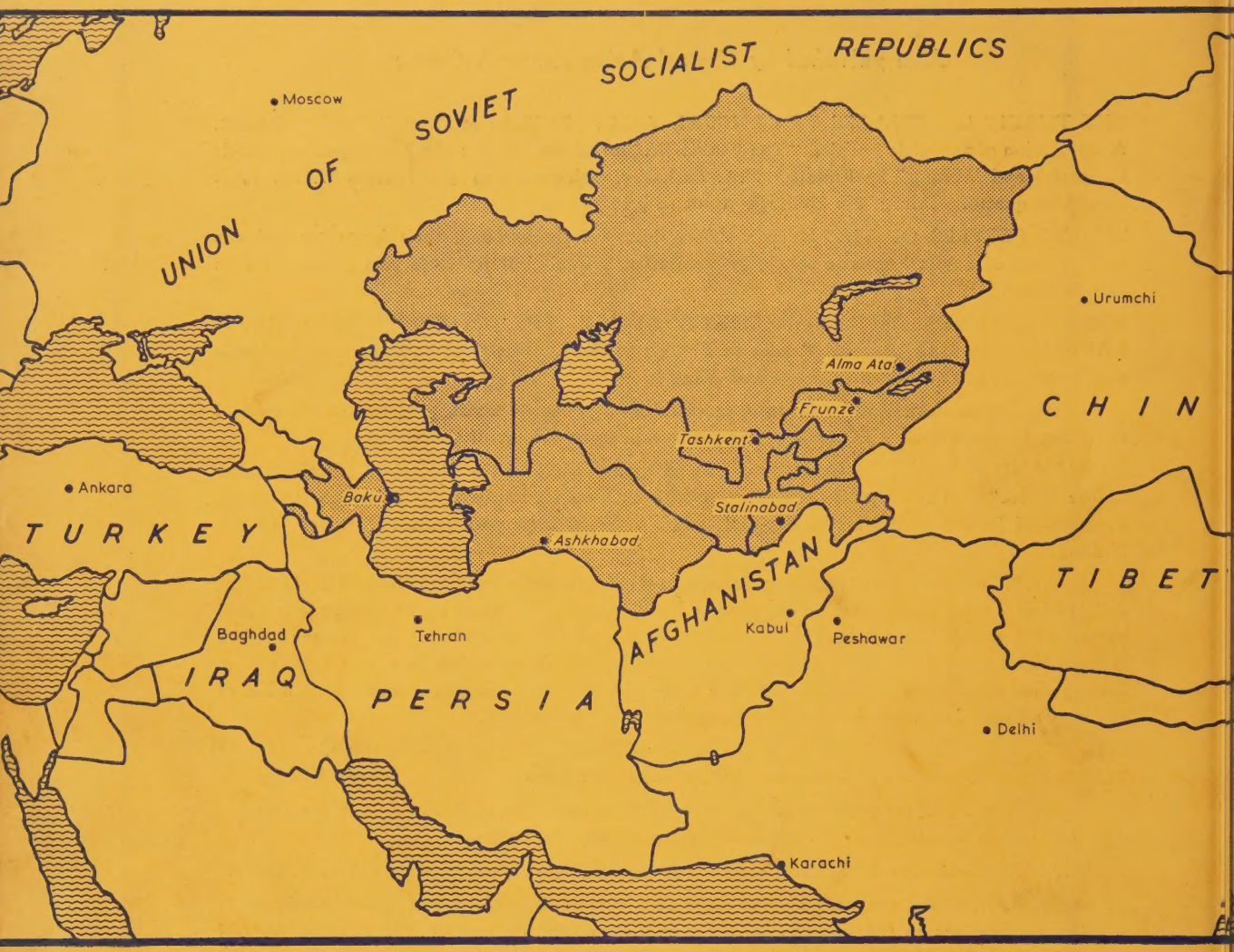
This bibliography is limited to certain specific periodicals, about 50 in number, and to new books. Highly technical source material is not included.

In preparation

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE TURKMEN LANGUAGE by G.K. Dulling.

Turkmen, while related to modern Turkish and Azeri in the south-western group of Turkic languages, differs from them in several important points of phonetics, morphology and syntax. This book describes these differences and also contains some notes on the unwritten Turkmen dialects spoken outside the Soviet Republic of Turkmenistan in Persia and Afghanistan.



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